

1   **Chapter 16**

2   **Grade Eleven – United States History and Geography: Continuity**  
3   **and Change in Modern United States History**

4         • How did the federal government grow between the late nineteenth and  
5                    twenty-first centuries?

6         • What does it mean to be an American in modern times?

7         • How did the United States become a superpower?

8         • How did the United States' population become more diverse over the  
9                    twentieth century?

10       In this course students examine major developments and turning points in  
11      American history from the late nineteenth century to the present. During the year  
12      the following themes are emphasized: the expanding role of the federal  
13      government; the emergence of a modern corporate economy and the role of  
14      organized labor; the role of the federal government and Federal Reserve System  
15      in regulating the economy; the impact of technology on American society and  
16      culture; changes in racial, ethnic, and gender dynamics in American society; the  
17      movements toward equal rights for racial, ethnic, religious, and sexual minorities  
18      and women; and the rise of the United States as a major world power. As  
19      students survey nearly 150 years of US history, they learn how geography  
20      shaped many of these developments, especially in terms of the country's position  
21      on the globe, its climate, and abundant natural resources. In each unit students

22 examine American culture, including religion, literature, art, music, drama,  
23 architecture, education, and the mass media.

24 The content covered in grade eleven is expansive, and the discipline-specific  
25 skills that are to be taught are equally demanding. In order to highlight significant  
26 developments, trends, and events, teachers should use framing questions  
27 around which their curriculum may be organized. Organizing content around  
28 questions of historical significance allows students to develop certain content  
29 areas in great depth. Framing questions also allow teachers the leeway to  
30 prioritize their content and highlight particular skills through students'  
31 investigations of the past. Questions that can frame the year-long content for  
32 eleventh grade include: **How did the federal government grow between the**  
33 **late 19<sup>th</sup> and 21<sup>st</sup> centuries? What does it mean to be an American in**  
34 **modern times? How did the United States become a superpower? How did**  
35 **the United States' population become more diverse over the 20<sup>th</sup> century?**

36 As students learn American history from the late 1800s through the 2010s,  
37 they should be encouraged to develop reading, writing, speaking, and listening  
38 skills that will enhance their understanding of the content. As in earlier grades,  
39 students should be taught that history is an investigative discipline, one that is  
40 continually reshaped based on primary source research and on new perspectives  
41 that can be uncovered. Students should be encouraged to read multiple primary  
42 and secondary documents; to understand multiple perspectives; to learn about  
43 how some things change over time and others tend not to; and they should  
44 appreciate that each historical era has its own context and it is up to the student

45 of history to make sense of the past on these terms and by asking questions  
46 about it.

47

48 **Connecting with Past Studies: The Nation’s Beginnings**

49 • What are key tenets of American democracy?  
50 • How did the country change because of the Civil War and Reconstruction  
51 in the nineteenth century?

52 The course begins with a selective review of United States history, with an  
53 emphasis on two major topics—*the nation’s beginnings*, linked to the tenth-grade  
54 retrospective on the Enlightenment and the rise of democratic ideas; *and the*  
55 *industrial transformation of the new nation*, linked to the students’ tenth-grade  
56 studies of the global spread of industrialism during the nineteenth century.

57 Special attention is given to the ideological origins of the American Revolution  
58 and its grounding in the democratic political tradition and the natural rights  
59 philosophy of the Founding Fathers with an emphasis on ideas including liberty,  
60 equality, and individual pursuit of happiness. This framing of the Constitution  
61 provides a background for understanding the contemporary constitutional issues  
62 raised throughout this course. Students may wish to participate in any number of  
63 Constitution Day activities on September 17. Students can address the question:

64 **What are key tenets of American democracy?** Teachers may want to highlight  
65 the emergence of a free democratic system of government alongside an  
66 entrenched system of chattel slavery that lasted for nearly a century. The  
67 question **How have American freedom and slavery co-existed in the nation’s**

68 **past?** reminds students of the parallel – and seemingly paradoxical –  
69 relationship.

70 Students can continue with a selective review of American government by  
71 considering this question: **How did the country change because of the Civil**  
72 **War and Reconstruction in the nineteenth century?** The events leading up to  
73 the Civil War, the successes and failures of Reconstruction, and informal and  
74 formal segregation brought on by Jim Crow laws also provides context for  
75 understanding racial inequities in late-nineteenth-century America. To help  
76 students understand the history of the Constitution after 1787, teachers pay  
77 particular attention to the post-Civil War amendments (Thirteenth, Fourteenth,  
78 and Fifteenth), which laid the foundation for the legal phase of the twentieth-  
79 century civil rights movement. The amended Constitution gave the federal  
80 government increased power over the states, especially for the extension of  
81 equal rights and an inclusive definition of citizenship. Focusing on these topics  
82 allows later on in the course for a comparative study of the civil rights movement  
83 over time as ethnic and racial minorities experienced it. In addition to the civil  
84 rights groundwork laid by the Reconstruction-era Constitutional Amendments,  
85 students should read closely the 14<sup>th</sup> Amendment as it has been continually  
86 reinterpreted and applied to different contexts by the courts; for example,  
87 sometimes it has been employed as a protection for workers and other times as  
88 a protection for corporations. In the context of the late nineteenth century, civil  
89 right advocates such as Booker T. Washington, the founder of Tuskegee Institute  
90 and author of the 1895 Atlanta Exposition address, and W.E.B. Du Bois, a

91 founder of the NAACP and author of *The Souls of Black Folk*, had different  
92 perspectives on the means of achieving greater progress and equality for African  
93 Americans. Racial violence, discrimination, and segregation inhibited African  
94 Americans' economic mobility, opportunity, and political participation. As  
95 background for their later studies about challenges to Jim Crow segregation,  
96 students understand the meaning of "separate but equal," both as a legal term  
97 and as a reality that effectively limited the life chances of African Americans by  
98 denying them equal opportunity for jobs, housing, education, health care, and  
99 voting rights.

100

## 101 **Industrialization, Urbanization, Immigration, and Progressive Reform**

- 102 • How did America's economy, industries, and population grow after the  
103 Civil War?
- 104 • How did the federal government impact the country's growth in the years  
105 following the Civil War?
- 106 • Who came to the United States at the end of the nineteenth and beginning  
107 of the twentieth century? Why did they come? What was their experience  
108 like when they arrived?
- 109 • Why did women want the right to vote and how did they convince men to  
110 grant it to them?

111 In the second unit, students concentrate on the nineteenth-century growth of  
112 the nation as an industrial power and its resulting societal changes. This question  
113 can frame students' initial investigation of this era: **How did America's**

114 **economy, industries, and population grow after the Civil War?** A brief  
115 retrospective of the grade ten study of the industrial revolution helps to set the  
116 global context for America's economic and social development. Industrialization,  
117 an umbrella term that describes the major changes in technology, transportation,  
118 communication, the economy and political system that fostered the growth,  
119 allowed for ballooning prosperity at the turn of the century. New technology in  
120 farming, manufacturing, engineering, and producing of consumer goods created  
121 material abundance. The flood of new **items** supported a larger and more urban  
122 population, and it made the producers of the goods very wealthy when prices  
123 were stable. Industrialization made possible wide-scale use of McCormick  
124 Reapers, hydro-power mining, assembly lines, high-rise buildings, chain stores,  
125 and eventually automobiles, among many other technological feats from the turn  
126 of the century. These and other features of modern life seemed to confirm the  
127 idea of unending progress. By pooling together capital to minimize risk and  
128 increase profits, American entrepreneurs generated unprecedented wealth.  
129 Some large businesses in the nineteenth century grew by organizing into trusts,  
130 monopolies, and integration. Students can learn about different kinds of business  
131 growth in the nineteenth century by comparing vertical integration with horizontal  
132 integration. While in the Gilded Age the meatpacking industry integrated vertically  
133 by consolidating the many levels of bringing meat to the marketplace, the oil  
134 industry integrated horizontally by having one company (Standard Oil) take over  
135 all refineries. Students can compare the strategies used by businesses in  
136 employing these two organizational strategies as well as the potential impact it

137 would have upon consumers. Students also examine emergence of industrial  
138 giants, “robber barons,” anti-union tactics, and the gaudy excesses of the Gilded  
139 Age. Widespread corruption among industrialists and governing officials resulted  
140 in city bosses and local officials consolidating a great deal of power. The  
141 perceived economic progress of the late nineteenth century was repeatedly  
142 disrupted by prolonged periods of severe financial distress; the country suffered  
143 a number of economic recessions during the intense boom and bust cycles at the  
144 end of the nineteenth century.

145 Industrialization also has a serious impact upon farmers, which students can  
146 learn about by considering the question: **How were farmers affected by**  
147 **industrialization? How did they respond to industrialization?** Advances in  
148 the nineteenth century like the McCormick Reaper made agriculture much more  
149 efficient, but it also meant that in order to stay afloat farmers had to invest in new  
150 technology. As farms were becoming more productive prices fell; in 1865 a  
151 bushel of wheat cost \$1.50, by 1894 that same bushel cost \$0.49. In order to  
152 stay afloat and compete, some farmers entered into a cycle of debt that often  
153 included tenant farming or sharecropping as well as the borrowing of seeds and  
154 tools from a furnishing merchant. The problem quickly became that furnishing  
155 merchants charged farmers exorbitant interest rates of about 60%. This cycle left  
156 farmers in a state of debt peonage. Farmers started to feel that they had lost their  
157 independence because they were dependent upon furnishing agents, banks and  
158 railroads, who also charged farmers high interest rates. Based on these shared  
159 economic grievances, farmers started organize and united in protest. The first

160 Farmers Alliance started in Texas in the 1870s and by the 1880s there were  
161 millions of members in the Midwest and the South. Serving a social, cultural, and  
162 political purpose, Farmers Alliances started to create Cooperatives that  
163 collectively demanded lower shipping and storage rates from railroads and better  
164 loans from banks. They pooled their economic resources into local Granges to  
165 afford the newest and most efficient equipment and to lobby for cheaper prices  
166 for materials. The Cooperatives even asked the federal government to establish  
167 the Sub-treasury System whereby the government set up storage silos (or sub-  
168 treasures) in urban centers, and when a farmer deposited a crop in the silo, the  
169 government would loan the farmer a percentage of the crop value to buy new  
170 seeds for the next season at a low interest rate. To push forward their ideas, in  
171 1890 farmers created a third political party, which by 1892 became national in  
172 focus and was called the People's Party, or the Populists that called for a  
173 government that would serve "the plain people." Throughout the 1890s the  
174 Populists united farmers in the south and the west, though by the 1896 election,  
175 the Democratic candidate – William Jennings Bryan – effectively coopted much  
176 of the Populist platform and ideology and farmers threw their support behind the  
177 Democrats.

178 The people that fueled industrialization in the nation's expanding urban  
179 centers migrated there from more rural areas domestically and came from  
180 nations all over the world. Students can consider this question to organize their  
181 study of immigration: **Who came to the United States at the end of the**  
182 **nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth century? Why did they come?**

183   **What was their experience like when they arrived?** A distinct wave of  
184   southern and eastern European immigration between the 1890s and 1910s  
185   (distinct from an earlier mid-19<sup>th</sup> century wave of immigration that resulted from  
186   European developments like **pogroms against the Jews and rising anti-**  
187   **Semitism and such natural disasters as** the Irish Potato Famine) brought tens  
188   of millions of darker-skinned, non-English-speaking, non-Protestant, **Catholic**  
189   migrants to American cities. Being pushed from their homelands for economic,  
190   political, and religious reasons, this diverse group was pulled to America with  
191   hope for economic opportunities and political freedom. Asian immigration  
192   continued to affect the development of the west despite a series of laws aimed to  
193   restrict migration from the western hemisphere including the Chinese Exclusion  
194   Act of 1882 and the Alien Land Act of 1913. The southwest borders continued to  
195   be quite fluid, making the United States an increasingly diverse nation in the  
196   early twentieth century.

197       Industrialization affected not only the demographic make-up and economic  
198   growth of the country; it changed way that ordinary people lived, worked, and  
199   interacted with one another. At the turn of the century, a growing number of the  
200   U.S. population lived in urban areas in small crowded quarters, often termed  
201   tenements. Designed to house as many individuals as possible, tenements were  
202   notorious for poor ventilation, lack of sanitation, and substandard construction.  
203   These qualities made crowd-diseases and fires especially deadly in cities like  
204   Chicago and New York. In addition to living in unsafe housing, many workers –  
205   especially recently-arrived immigrants – found work in urban factories where low

206 wages, long hours, child labor, and dangerous working conditions were all  
207 commonplace. Students study the labor movement’s growth, despite the  
208 repeated efforts of corporations to use violence against labor protests. To learn  
209 about the labor movement on the ground, students might conduct a mock  
210 legislative hearing to investigate the causes and consequences of the Haymarket  
211 riot in Chicago in 1886.

**Grade Eleven Classroom Example: Working Children**

Mr. Gavin’s eleventh-grade US history class gets an up-close view of daily life for working-class children in their studies of industrialization. On the first day he poses an initial question to the class: **How old should you have to be to work?** After discussing with students how until the end of the nineteenth century, most Americans lived on farms and the children worked alongside parents during most harvesting seasons, Mr. Gavin asks students to speculate as to the similarities and differences between working on a family farm and working in a factory. Using a *Child Labor Law Pamphlet* from the California Department of Industrial Relations and their own personal experience, students brainstorm a list of current age-related restrictions. While the students are compiling their list, Mr. Gavin asks them probing questions about whether jobs should have age limits at all, especially if the wages the child brought home would earn would enable the family to have enough to eat, for example. After listing on the board a number of these important factors that guide our understanding of age limits in the workplace, Mr. Gavin then tells his students they will do a gallery walk to learn

about child labor around the turn of the century.

Mr. Gavin has displayed on the walls of his classroom a number of Lewis Hines photographs that document child labor. He has organized the photographs into four stations with each station containing a few images that are clustered around a theme (the themes are 1. children and factory work, 2. children and mining, 3. children posed alone, 4. children in their homes). Before telling students to start viewing the images, he hands them a photograph analysis page and tells students that at each station they must select one photograph to report on and closely analyze. On the photograph analysis page, students are directed to 1. Collect all available bibliographic information (time, date, characters, for example); 2. Write a one-sentence explanation of what they see in the photograph, including an estimation of the child's age; 3. Collect information about what the child is wearing or not wearing that might provide clues about status (e.g., Is a child working in a factory wearing shoes? What might this tell us about money?); 4. Assess what they think the perspective or agenda of the photographer is and provide one piece of evidence why they think that (encourage students to think about the role of the photographer being something other than an objective lens); 5. Make connections to historical content they've already studied (e.g., Does it relate to industrialization or immigration?).

After students have rotated through the stations, collected their information about the four images, and documented it on their graphic organizers, Mr. Gavin's students report back to the class, following a structured discussion

protocol where students are paired together and take turns synthesizing their responses from the graphic organizer, using sentence starters (“Overall, we can say that...,” “The main point seems to be...,” “As a result of this conversation, we think that...,” “A summary of our evidence might be...,” “The evidence seems to suggest...”) to ask probing questions about their partner’s reports. Finally, Mr. Gavin facilitates a brief conversation with the whole class and asks them to focus closely on what Lewis Hines hoped to communicate, emphasizing that most of them are posed photographs. Mr. Gavin also asks students to return to the original question about how old children should be to work, by asking them to write a letter to the editor of a newspaper that had just published Hines’ photographs. In their letters, students are encouraged to discuss their analysis of Hines’ work, as well as both the justification(s) for and problems resulting from child labor in an argumentative essay format, using evidence from the photographs, as well as other primary sources depicting or describing life during the industrial age.

Mr. Gavin concludes this lesson by building upon the themes outlined in his students’ essays as he transitions to a discussion of Progressive-era reformers.

Source: Classroom activity adapted from teacher Jessica Williams’ structured discussion lessons, as detailed in “Conversations in the Common Core Classroom,” by Letty Kraus, in *The Source*, pp. 26-30, a publication of the California History-Social Science Project. Copyright @ 2015, Regents of the

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**CA HSS Content Standards: 11.2.1**

**CA HSS Analysis Skills (9–12):** Chronological and Spatial Thinking 1; Historical Research, Evidence, and Point of View 4; Historical Interpretation 3

**CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy:** RH.11–12.1, 2, 7, 8, WHST.11–12.1, 9, SL.11–12.1c

**CA ELD Standards:** ELD.PI.11–12.1, 3, 6b, 10a, 11a

212

213        Nevertheless, within the problem-ridden environments of recently-industrialized cities, many people found the opportunities of city life to be very exciting. Thriving urban centers became havens for the middle-class single women who played an important role in the settlement house movement, making collective homes in the poor areas of cities and often forming marriage-like relationships known as “Boston marriages” with one another as they worked to provide services. In addition, in these growing cities, poorer young women and men who moved from farms and small towns to take up employment in factories, offices, and shops found themselves free from familial and community supervision in the urban environment. At nights and on weekends they flocked to new forms of commercialized entertainment such as amusement parks, dance halls, and movie theaters, and engaged in less restricted forms of intimacy, alarming some middle-class reformers. The more anonymous environment of cities also made space for men and women seeking relationships with one another and with someone of the same sex. By the end of the century, concepts

228 of homosexuality and heterosexuality became defined as discrete categories of  
229 identity. This had consequences for the ways that people thought about intimate  
230 relationships between people of the same gender.

231 While young primarily working-class youth found excitement in the  
232 opportunities of the city, a group of reformers – broadly termed progressives –  
233 also emerged around the turn of the century and sought to remedy some of the  
234 problems that came from industrialization. Primarily comprised of white, middle  
235 class, Protestant, college-educated, and often women, progressives aimed to  
236 identify urban problems, work closely with communities to solve them, and then  
237 lobby the government to institute broader reforms to prevent future suffering. One  
238 of their first tasks was to take on the widespread corruption of bosses and  
239 government officials, as well as civil service reform. Female reformers took  
240 advantage of new opportunities for education and employment previously  
241 reserved for men. Students should study Jane Addams and Florence Kelley as  
242 they formed alliances with labor unions and business interests to press for state  
243 reforms in working conditions, lobbied to clean up local government corruption,  
244 and sought to improve public services. Women reformers took advantage of new  
245 opportunities for education and employment previously reserved for men to build  
246 new professions. Progressives particularly tried to address problems of  
247 immigrants, and especially the children, through advocacy of the Americanization  
248 movement, which sought to assimilate European immigrants into becoming  
249 Americans through schooling, cultural and social practices, and at work.  
250 Questionable by today's standards that generally embrace having a plurality of

251 experiences in the country, analyzing the Americanization movement offers  
252 students an opportunity to think historically, employing the skills of  
253 contextualization and cause and effect to understand the impetus of the  
254 movement as a product of its time. The historical context that gave rise to the  
255 Americanization movement also included Social Darwinism, laissez-faire  
256 economics, as well as the religious reformism associated with the ideal of the  
257 Social Gospel. Together these ideas reinforced the notion that those with the will  
258 and strength for hard work could attain individual progress. But these notions  
259 also reflected an increasing concern about the changing face of America, and  
260 some leaders called into question whether all people could be fit for citizenship.

261       Although attempts to build new political parties around the cause of reform,  
262 such as the Populists and Progressive Parties, ultimately failed, progressive  
263 legislation led to an expansion of the role of the federal government in regulating  
264 business, commerce, labor, mining, and agriculture during the administrations of  
265 Presidents Roosevelt, Taft, and Wilson. Students can investigate this question as  
266 they consider shifts in the government: **How did the federal government**  
267 **impact the country's growth in the years following the Civil War?** During  
268 these same years, progressive state legislation regulated child labor, the  
269 minimum wage, the eight-hour day, and mandatory public education, as well as  
270 supplied women in many states with the vote. The president who is most often  
271 association with implementing progressive reforms is Theodore Roosevelt.  
272 Roosevelt, who took office following the assassination of Republican President  
273 William McKinley in 1901, instituted significant national reforms, expanded the

274 role of the federal government in order to do things like control trusts, and took  
275 charge of national land to develop the national parks system. Roosevelt  
276 embodied the progressive sentiment that called upon the government to restore  
277 and preserve freedom because the sense was that only by working through the  
278 government could the power of big business be countered and would people be  
279 protected. With progressivism calling for an expanded government to protect  
280 individuals, it is only natural that expanding voting rights were deemed equally  
281 important. In California women received the right to vote in 1911; it took several  
282 more years on the national level. Students read about leading suffragists and  
283 their organizations, especially the National American Woman Suffrage  
284 Association (NAWSA) and the National Women's Party (NWP). This question  
285 can frame students' exploration of the woman's suffrage movement: **Why did**  
286 **women want the right to vote and how did they convince men to grant it to**  
287 **them?** Progressive impulses also challenged big-city bosses and government  
288 corruption; rallied public indignation against trusts; pushed for greater urban  
289 policing, social work, and institutionalization related to gender, sexuality, race,  
290 and class; and played a major role in national politics in the pre–World War I era.  
291 Moreover, labor and social justice movements also called for education reform,  
292 better living conditions, wage equality, more social freedom for women,  
293 sometimes acceptance of, or at least tolerance for, women and men living  
294 outside of traditional heterosexual roles and relationships. Excerpts from the  
295 works of muckrakers, reformers, and radical thinkers such as Lincoln Steffens,  
296 Jacob Riis, Ida Tarbell, Helen Hunt Jackson, Joseph Mayer Rice, Emma

297 Goldman, and Jane Addams and novels by writers such as Theodore Dreiser,

298 Upton Sinclair, and Frank Norris will help set the scene for students.

299

300 **The Rise of the United States as a World Power**

301 • How did America's role in the world change between the 1870s and  
302 1910s?

303 • Did the United States become an imperial power? Why or why not?  
304 • How did America change because of World War I?

305 In grade ten students studied America's growing influence as a world power  
306 in the global context of nineteenth-century European imperialism. The United  
307 States protected and promoted its economic and political interests overseas  
308 during this intense period of global competition for raw materials, markets, and  
309 colonial possessions. In grade eleven students learn about these developments  
310 from an American perspective. This question can frame their studies of this topic:

311 **How did America's role in the world change between the 1870s and 1910s?**

312 Presidents William McKinley, Theodore Roosevelt, William Taft, and Woodrow  
313 Wilson all sought to expand the United States' interests beyond our borders. A  
314 noteworthy example of this was the Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine,  
315 which argued for American intervention in Latin America. American foreign policy  
316 aimed to promote business interests abroad because of concerns about over-  
317 saturated markets at home. This concern for encouraging open-markets that  
318 would be friendly to business interests became tied to promotion of American-  
319 style democracy and civilizing missions. As President Woodrow Wilson once told

320 a group of American businessmen: “Lift your eyes to the horizons of business, let  
321 your thoughts and your imagination run abroad throughout the whole world, and  
322 with the inspiration of the thought that you are Americans and are meant to carry  
323 liberty and justice and the principles of humanity wherever you go, go out and  
324 sell goods that will make the world more comfortable and more happy, and  
325 convert them to the principles of America.” Students may consider the nation’s  
326 objectives and attitudes about other nations and diverse people in analyzing its  
327 immigration policy, limitations and scrutiny placed on those already in the U.S.,  
328 and exclusion of people considered disabled, as well as foreign policy, including  
329 the American Open Door policy, and expansion into the South Pacific and  
330 Caribbean following the Spanish-American and Philippine-American Wars.  
331 Moreover, American intervention in the Panama Revolution helped secure  
332 control over the Panama Canal and certified America’s emergence as a global  
333 economic and military power. President Roosevelt portrayed his “big stick”  
334 policies as necessary extensions of American strength and racial destiny onto a  
335 world that needed U.S. leadership. The voyage of the Great White Fleet, and the  
336 United States’ involvement in World War I are additional examples of America’s  
337 complicated expansion into world affairs. This seemingly simple question can  
338 help students to form a nuanced analysis: **Did the United States become an**  
339 **imperial power? Why or why not?**

340 World War I began in 1914, and while the US began to supply the Allies with  
341 weapons and goods that year, American soldiers didn’t join the conflict until three  
342 years later. Although American entry into the Great War came later than Allied

343 Powers hoped for, when Wilson asked Congress for a declaration of war in April,  
344 1917, he did so in an effort to continue promoting America's vision for the world.  
345 When American troops arrived in Europe in the fall of 1917, their participation  
346 helped bring an end to the war and establish the United States as a global  
347 power. Students should read Wilson's Fourteen Points as a justification for why  
348 he felt America should go to war, analyze how the Fourteen Points were an  
349 extension of earlier policies, and identify which of the points might be  
350 controversial in the context of the war. With the end of the war, Wilson was  
351 heralded as a hero in Europe when he traveled there to attend the Paris Peace  
352 Conference. Despite his significant role in designing the Versailles Treaty which  
353 ended the war, Wilson ultimately could not convince Congress to join the League  
354 of Nations. Students can identify the significance of World War I in transforming  
355 America to a world leader, but they should also understand that the aftermath of  
356 the war ushered in a decade of isolationism, which by the end of the 1920s would  
357 have serious consequences for the world economies.

358 Just as World War I stands as an important marker of the new role for the  
359 U.S. on the world stage, the war also is an important event that started a century-  
360 long growth of the federal government. Once the United States entered the war,  
361 the government grew through the administration of the draft, the organization of  
362 the war at home, and the promotion of civilian support for the war. Americans on  
363 the home front had mixed reactions to the war. Some bought Liberty bonds to  
364 support the war, while others opposed the war. National security concerns led to  
365 the passage and enforcement of the Espionage and Seditions Acts, which

366 encroached upon civil liberties. German Americans experienced prejudice and  
367 extreme nativism. African Americans, who served in the military – in segregated  
368 units – came home and often moved to industrial centers as part of the “Great  
369 Migration,” and were often met with hostility from locals. Young men serving  
370 abroad found European ideas about race and sexuality very liberating. The war  
371 provided the context in which women’s activism to secure the vote finally  
372 succeeded. The war also had consequences for soldiers who returned home with  
373 physical injuries and a new syndrome known as “shell shock.” A number of  
374 American writers and poets of the “Lost Generation,” such as Ernest Hemingway,  
375 John Dos Passos, and Ezra Pound, sought solace in their creative work to make  
376 meaning out of the death and destruction of the war, and their resulting  
377 disillusionment with American idealism. This question can help students  
378 synthesize their studies of World War I both abroad and at home: **How did**  
379 **America change because of World War I?**

380

381 **The 1920s**

382 • How did culture change in the 1920s?  
383 • Were the 1920s a “return to normalcy?” Why or why not?  
384 • Why were the 1920s filled with political, social, and economic extremes?  
385 The 1920s is often characterized as a period of Prohibition, gangsters,  
386 speakeasies, jazz bands, and flappers, living frivolously, overshadowing the  
387 complex realities of this era. In reality, the 1920s is a decade of extremes: broad  
388 cultural leaps forward to embrace modernity and simultaneously a deep anxiety

389 about the country changing too fast, and for the worse. Students can consider  
390 this question as they learn about the movements of the 1920s: **Why were the**  
391 **1920s filled with political, social, and economic extremes?** For middle-class  
392 white Americans, the standard of living rose in the 1920s, and new consumer  
393 goods such as automobiles, radios, and household appliances became available,  
394 as well as consumer credit. Students learn how productivity increased through  
395 the widespread adoption of mass production techniques, such as the assembly  
396 line. The emergence of the mass media created new markets, new tastes, and a  
397 new popular culture. Movies, radio, and advertising spread styles, raised  
398 expectations, promoted interests in fads and sports, and created gendered  
399 celebrity icons such as “It Girl” Clara Bow and Babe Ruth, the “Sultan of Swat.”  
400 At the same time, major new writers began to appear, such as William Faulkner,  
401 F. Scott Fitzgerald, Gertrude Stein, and Sinclair Lewis. As students learn about  
402 the prosperity and proliferation of consumer goods on the market in the 1920s,  
403 students learn that with these changes came both intended and unforeseeable  
404 consequences, many resulting in social effects on people and impacts on the  
405 environments in which they lived (California Environmental Principle IV).

406 This question can help frame students’ understanding of the 1920s: **How did**  
407 **culture change in the 1920s?** Students should explore cultural and social  
408 elements of the “Jazz Age.” Women, who had just secured national suffrage with  
409 the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment, experienced new freedoms but also  
410 faced pressure to be attractive and sexual through the growing cosmetics and  
411 entertainment industries, and their related advertisements. The passage of the

412 Eighteenth Amendment and the Volstead Act triggered the establishment of  
413 speakeasies. These not only represented a challenge to Prohibition but  
414 established a vast social world that broke the law and challenged middle-class  
415 ideas of what should be allowed. Within those arenas, LGBT patrons and  
416 performers became part of what was tolerated and even sometimes acceptable  
417 as LGBT-oriented subcultures grew and became more visible. At the same time,  
418 modern heterosexuality became elaborated through a growing world of dating  
419 and entertainment, a celebration of romance in popular media, a new  
420 prominence for young people and youth cultures, and an emphasis on a new  
421 kind of marriage that valued companionship.

422 American culture was also altered by the First Great Migration of over a  
423 million African Americans from the rural South to the urban North during and after  
424 World War I, which changed the landscape of black America. The continued flow  
425 of migrants and the practical restrictions of segregation in the 1920s helped to  
426 create the “Harlem Renaissance,” the literary and artistic flowering of black  
427 artists, poets, musicians, and scholars, such as Alain Locke, Langston Hughes,  
428 Countee Cullen, Gertrude “Ma” Rainey, and Zora Neale Hurston. Their work  
429 provides students with stunning portrayals of life during segregation, both urban  
430 and rural. LGBT life expanded in 1920s Harlem. At drag balls, rent parties, and  
431 speakeasies, rules about acceptable gendered behavior seemed more flexible  
432 for black and white Americans than in other parts of society, and many leading  
433 figures in the “Renaissance” such as Hughes, Locke, Cullen, and Rainey were  
434 lesbian, gay, or bisexual. The Harlem Renaissance led many African Americans

- 435 to embrace a new sense of black pride and identity, as did Marcus Garvey, the  
436 Black Nationalist leader of a “Back to Africa” movement that peaked during this  
437 period.

**Grade Eleven Classroom Example: The Harlem Renaissance**

Ms. Brooks asks her students to examine Langston Hughes' poem “I, Too” to study the intent of Harlem Renaissance artists:

I, too, sing America.

I am the darker brother.

They send me to eat in the kitchen

When company comes,

But I laugh,

And eat well,

And grow strong.

Tomorrow,

I'll be at the table

When company comes.

Nobody'll dare

Say to me,

“Eat in the kitchen,”

Then.

Besides,

They'll see how beautiful I am

And be ashamed—

I, too, am America.

She introduces this poem to the class by asking students why African American leaders would use art to express themselves – and to advocate for equal rights – rather than to work through political, legal, or economic avenues. Students discuss this question in groups of three, and then post their answers in a controlled online backchannel chat moderated by Ms. Brooks, who quickly reviews student responses to make sure all students have had the opportunity to share their thinking.

Ms. Brooks then distributes copies of Hughes' poem to her students and reads it aloud for them. Students then turn to a neighbor and share one word or phrase that resonated with them; Ms. Brooks randomly asks for a few students to share what their partners said with the rest of the class. Ms. Brooks then directs her students to read the poem again, this time with one other student, to find and then circle words and short phrases relating to America and underline words and short phrases relating to inequality. After this second read through and with their

texts marked, Ms. Brooks asks for volunteers to share stanzas to read aloud the poem a third time. Finally, students are asked to share, first in discussion with a small group and then in a brief written response, answers to these questions: What did Hughes intend to accomplish with this poem? Why would he use poetry (or other art forms) to communicate this point during the 1920s? Ms. Brooks encourages students to use terms such as probably, likely, potentially, or certainly in their written responses. As students draft their answers, Ms. Brooks reminds them to consider the impact of Jim Crow laws and the many unofficial restrictions on opportunities for advancement for African Americans; thus, art was one of the few avenues for creativity and advancement.

**CA HSS Content Standards:** 11.5.5

**CA HSS Analysis Skills (9–12):** Historical Interpretation 3

**CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy:** RL.11–12.4, 5, WHST.11–12.6, 7, SL.11–12.1

**CA ELD Standards:** ELD.PI.11–12.1, 6b, 7, 8, 11

438

439       At the same time that American consumer and popular culture was being  
440       remade, farm income declined precipitously and farmers found themselves once  
441       again suffering from the pressures of technology and the marketplace. American  
442       politicians espoused a desire to return to “normalcy” as evidenced by the election  
443       of Warren Harding, Calvin Coolidge, and Herbert Hoover. In addition to American  
444       political leaders’ reluctance to embrace change, many Americans did not  
445       embrace the social and cultural openness of the decade. These people found a  
446       voice in many organizations that formed to prevent such shifts. The Ku Klux Klan

447 launched anti-immigrant and moralizing campaigns of violence and intimidation;  
448 vice squads targeted speakeasies, communities of color, and LGBT venues. As a  
449 reflection of the anxiety about the changing demographic composition of the  
450 country, the United States Supreme Court ruled in *United States v. Bhagat Singh*  
451 *Thind* (1923) that the country could restrict the right to naturalization based on  
452 race. Congress, encouraged by eugenicists who warned of the “degradation” of  
453 the population, restricted immigration by instituting nationality quotas the  
454 following year in 1924. Similar fears about outsiders hurting the nation led to  
455 campaigns against perceived radicals. Fears of communism and anarchism  
456 associated with the Russian Revolution and World War I provoked attacks on  
457 civil liberties and industrial unionists, including the Palmer Raids, the “Red  
458 Scare,” the Sacco-Vanzetti case, and legislation restraining individual expression  
459 and privacy. Legal challenges to these activities produced major Supreme Court  
460 decisions defining and qualifying the right to dissent and freedom of speech. By  
461 reading some of the extraordinary decisions of Justices Louis Brandeis and  
462 Oliver Wendell Holmes (*Schenck v. U.S.* (1919) and *Whitney v. California*  
463 (1927)), students will understand the continuing tension between the rights of the  
464 individual and the power of government. Students can engage in a debate that  
465 weighs the need to preserve civil liberties against the need to protect national  
466 security. Learning about the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), formed in  
467 1920 with the purpose of defending World War I dissenters, and the National  
468 Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), established in  
469 1909 to protect and promote the constitutional rights of minorities, helps students

470 identify organizational responses to unpopular views and minority rights.

471 Students can synthesize their studies of the 1920s by addressing this question:

472 **Were the 1920s a “return to normalcy?” Why or why not?**

473

474 **The Great Depression and the New Deal**

475 • Why was there a Great Depression?

476 • How did the New Deal attempt to remedy problems from the Great  
477 Depression?

478 • How did ordinary people respond to the Great Depression?

479 Students should begin their investigation to the Great Depression by  
480 considering this question: **Why was there a Great Depression?** The collapse of  
481 the national and international financial system in 1929 led to the crash of the  
482 American stock market in October, 1929. The stock market crash revealed broad  
483 underlying weaknesses in the economy, which resulted in the most intense and  
484 prolonged economic crisis in modern American history. An interconnected web of  
485 international investments, loans, monetary and fiscal policies, and World War I  
486 reparations collided in 1929 and led to a worldwide economic downturn. In  
487 America, the Great Depression resulted from four broad factors, which explain  
488 both why the Depression surfaced and more importantly why it lasted for a  
489 decade: 1) it resulted from over-saturated markets in the nation’s two leading  
490 industries: automobiles and construction; 2) it grew out of lack of regulations in  
491 the financial and banking industries (for example pools artificially inflated stock  
492 prices while banks heavily invested depositors’ funds in the volatile stock

493 market); 3) it stemmed from a mal-distribution of income (in 1929 more than half  
494 of American families lived on the edge of or below the minimum subsistence level  
495 despite the low level of unemployment. The failure of businesses to share more  
496 equally the fruits of prosperity decreased demands for goods and services); 4) it  
497 grew out of the world-wide financial system created by World War I (in which  
498 America replaced Britain as the financial leader, but declined to facilitate the flow  
499 of capital, goods and people through adopting an aggressive tariff policy, for  
500 example).

501       The effects of the Great Depression started to be felt almost immediately. The  
502 stock market crash exposed the fragile positions of banks, and when a few  
503 extremely vulnerable banks closed their doors, ordinary Americans panicked and  
504 started to withdraw their deposits from other banks, which led to an even more  
505 severe strain on the banking industry. With a crashing stock market, failing  
506 banks, and panicked citizens, people stopped spending money. Factories quickly  
507 cut production because of the drastic fall-off in demand; for example, by 1932  
508 automobile plants were operating at 12% of capacity. National unemployment  
509 started a steady climb from its average of 3.7% in the 1920s. By 1930  
510 unemployment averaged 9%; by 1932 it was at 23%. An additional 33% of  
511 Americans were considered underemployed, unable to find adequate hours to  
512 secure a full paycheck. These figures were accompanied by a declining gross  
513 national product, consumer price index, and farm income. To make sense of  
514 quantitative economic information, students can organize these figures into  
515 graphics in which they chart change over time and identify and explain large-

516 scale trends.

517 American political leaders initially responded cautiously, if not optimistically, to  
518 the Depression. In November of 1929, President Herbert Hoover famously  
519 declared that “Any lack of confidence in the economic future or the basic strength  
520 of business in the United States is foolish.” Ordinary Americans felt differently,  
521 electing Franklin Delano Roosevelt in 1932. FDR won by a wide margin, largely  
522 because he convinced Americans that their economic livelihoods would improve  
523 under his administration. Roosevelt created the New Deal, which was a series of  
524 programs, agencies, laws, and funds intended to provide relief, reform, and  
525 recovery to combat the economic crisis. Expansionary fiscal and monetary  
526 policies, job programs, and regulatory agencies are a few of the broad roles for  
527 government set in place by the New Deal. This question can frame students’  
528 investigations of the New Deal: **How did the New Deal attempt to remedy**  
529 **problems from the Great Depression?** Key New Deal innovations included the  
530 right to collective bargaining for unions, minimum-wage and hours laws, Social  
531 Security for the elderly, disabled, unemployed, and dependent women and  
532 children. Taken together, these new developments created the principle that the  
533 government has a responsibility to provide a safety net to protect the most  
534 vulnerable Americans; the legacy of these safety net programs created the notion  
535 of the modern welfare state. New Deal agencies that students can focus on are  
536 the Agricultural Adjustment Administration (AAA), National Industrial Recovery  
537 Administration (NIRA), and Works Progress Administration (WPA). These  
538 agencies – and many new policies set in place by Roosevelt – were premised on

539 a theory of Planned Scarcity; the root of economic problems was an over-supply  
540 of goods in the marketplace and the role of the government would be to  
541 stabilize production and aid businesses, which would ultimately help workers.  
542 John Maynard Keynes, the leading economist whose ideas of “priming the pump”  
543 also guided many of Roosevelt’s later economic policies, argued that if the  
544 government directly invested in the economy – even if it had to run a deficit by  
545 doing so, – that individual Americans would have more purchasing power and the  
546 economy would recover from the Depression sooner.

547 Though the New Deal coalition forged a Democratic voting bloc comprised of  
548 workers, farmers, African Americans, Southern whites, Jews, Catholics, and  
549 educated Northerners, the New Deal generated controversy and inspired  
550 significant opposition to Roosevelt. Criticism came from both the far left, who  
551 argued that the government was not doing enough to help Americans’ suffering,  
552 and the right of the political spectrum, who argued that the executive branch was  
553 doing far too much to regulate the economy. Students can study dissident voices  
554 in the New Deal and analyze the effects of the New Deal by exploring what areas  
555 of the U.S. society were addressed? What agencies were created? Were they  
556 effective? Why were many nullified? Which are still in place? Students can  
557 watch, listen to, or read excerpts from Roosevelt’s inaugural addresses and  
558 fireside chats in order to analyze how the president worked to rally the nation by  
559 communicating with Americans in a sympathetic and plain-spoken way.  
560 Ultimately, Roosevelt’s economic policies did not end the Great Depression;  
561 World War II did because it involved a level of government spending and

562 mobilization that led sectors of the economy to put everyone back to work.

563 However, New Deal policies did ameliorate some of the worst ravages of the

564 depression, gave the nation hope at a time of despair, and started the nation on

565 the road to recovery which had made significant progress by 1937. After 1937

566 Roosevelt reduced the government stimulus after in a pronounced shift to a

567 balance the budget, temporarily stalling the recovery. Despite the New Deal's

568 failure to end the Great Depression, Roosevelt forever changed the office of the

569 presidency by expanding the scope and power of the executive branch through

570 what some historians have called the "Imperial Presidency." Teachers may wish

571 to show students select clips of Ken Burns' documentary "The Roosevelts."

572 The Great Depression affected American society and culture in profound

573 ways. Students should consider: **How did ordinary people respond to the**

574 **Great Depression?** The effects of the Depression were worsened by the Dust

575 Bowl, a result of natural drought combined with unwise agricultural practices, led

576 to the dislocation of farmers who could no longer make a living from agriculture in

577 the Great Plains. The famed Okies, portrayed in the literature of John Steinbeck

578 and photographs of Dorothea Lange (among other artists of the 1930s), were

579 pushed off their land and participated in the significant migration of workers that

580 came to California in search of work and opportunities only to find themselves

581 treated poorly and in a continued state of economic turmoil. In addition to migrant

582 farmworkers faring poorly during the Depression, the trial of the Scottsboro Boys,

583 nine black youths falsely charged with raping two white women, illuminates the

584 racism of the period. The economic crisis also led to the Mexican Repatriation

585 Program, whereby government officials and some private groups launched a  
586 massive effort to get rid of Mexicans, citing federal immigration law, the need to  
587 save jobs for “real Americans,” and a desire to reduce welfare costs. The  
588 resulting repatriation drives were done in violation of individual civil rights.  
589 Scholars estimate at least one million Mexican Nationals and Mexican  
590 Americans, including children, were deported from the United States to Mexico;  
591 approximately 400,000 of these were from California. Many of those who were  
592 illegally “repatriated” returned home during World War II, joining the armed  
593 services and working in the defense industry. In 2005, the California State  
594 Legislature passed SB 670, the “Apology Act for the 1930s Mexican Repatriation  
595 Program,” issuing a public apology for the action and authorizing the creation of a  
596 public commemoration site in Los Angeles. In 1935, Congress also passed the  
597 Filipino Repatriation Act, which paid for transportation for Filipinos who agreed to  
598 return permanently to their home country. Students can compare these  
599 Depression-era events to the institution of the Bracero Program in 1942, which  
600 brought Mexicans back into California (and other parts of the US) to supply farm  
601 labor during WWII.

602 Severe economic distress also triggered social protests, such as sit-down  
603 strikes, and the successful unionization of unskilled workers in America’s giant  
604 industries led by the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of  
605 Industrial Organizations. Moreover, black and white sharecroppers in the South  
606 launched the Southern Tenants Farmers Union. With the Roosevelt  
607 administration in support of the rights of workers through such laws as the

608 Wagner Act, the 1930s saw a vast acceleration of the number of workers that felt  
609 free and protected to join a union. Photographs, videotapes, monographs,  
610 newspaper accounts, interviews with persons who lived in the period (for  
611 example in Studs Terkel's *Hard Times*, Vicki Ruiz's *Cannery Women, Cannery*  
612 *Lives*, and Dorothea Lange's photojournalism), as well as paintings and novels  
613 (such as John Steinbeck's *Grapes of Wrath*) capture how ordinary people  
614 experienced the Depression. To make the productions from the New Deal local  
615 and concrete, students might participate in a project in which they identify and  
616 study something in their community that was created during the New Deal by one  
617 of the agencies. California students might focus on any number of projects done  
618 through WPA or the CCC. Teachers can guide students to identify the artifact  
619 (such as an art installation, bridge, building, reservoir, hiking trail, etc.) in their  
620 communities. The student then is directed to tell the story of the artifact; identify  
621 the agency that worked on the project; research who worked for the agency and  
622 ideally on the project itself; and to contextualize the project in the New Deal by  
623 responding to this question: **How is this artifact a reflection of the New Deal?**

624

625 **America's Participation in World War II**

- 626 • Why did Americans not want to join World War II before the bombing at  
627 Pearl Harbor?
- 628 • How did the American government change because of World War II?
- 629 • How was the war mobilized and fought differently in the Atlantic versus the  
630 Pacific?

- 631       • “How did America win the war in the Pacific?”
- 632       • How did World War II serve to advance movements for equality at home
- 633              and abroad?
- 634       In this unit students examine the role of the United States in World War II.
- 635       Students might begin their World War II study with a short review of selected
- 636       content from their 10<sup>th</sup> grade course, such as the rise of dictatorships in Germany
- 637       and the Soviet Union and the military-dominated monarchy in Japan, and the
- 638       events in Europe and Asia in the 1930s that led to war, including the economic
- 639       and political ties that existed between the United States and the Allies prior to
- 640       U.S. entry into World War II. However, students should study the war from the
- 641       American perspective, which means they learn that before 1941, the war was
- 642       extremely unpopular domestically. Students should consider this question to
- 643       contextualize America in the lead-up to war: **Why did Americans not want to**
- 644       **join World War II before the bombing at Pearl Harbor?** Following the will of
- 645       the American public, Congress passed a series of Neutrality Acts in the 1930s
- 646       aimed to prevent any sort of American aid to nations at war. Standing in direct
- 647       opposition to the American people and Congress, President Roosevelt felt very
- 648       early on that the country should support the Allied cause. Roosevelt believed that
- 649       Hitler posed a threat to the world unlike any other and that the United States
- 650       needed to hold strong against Japan’s territorial aggressions in Asia. Students
- 651       understand the debate between isolationists and interventionists in the United
- 652       States as well as the effect on American public opinion of the Nazi-Soviet pact
- 653       and then the breaking of it. However, the bombing of Pearl Harbor turned the tide

654 of American opinion about war instantly. The day after the bombing of Pearl  
655 Harbor, Congress declared war on Japan; three days later Germany declared  
656 war on the United States, a country Hitler called “Half-Judaized and the other half  
657 Negrified.” World War II would require a massive buildup of resources for the two  
658 fronts.

659 World War II was a watershed event for the nation, but especially for  
660 California. Students can address this question to learn about cause and effect  
661 during the war: **How did the American government change because of World**  
662 **War II?** By reading contemporary accounts in newspapers and popular  
663 magazines, students understand the extent to which this war taught Americans to  
664 think in global terms. By studying wartime strategy and major military operations,  
665 students grasp the geopolitical implications of the war and its importance for  
666 postwar international relations. Through a guided reading of Roosevelt’s “Four  
667 Freedoms” speech, students can learn how the war became framed as a conflict  
668 about fundamental values. They can also learn how the Four Freedoms inspired  
669 Norman Rockwell to create illustrations that translated the war aims into scenes  
670 of “everyday American life” and became a centerpiece of the bond drive during  
671 the war. Students learn about the roles and sacrifices of American soldiers during  
672 the war, including the contributions of the Tuskegee Airmen, the 442<sup>nd</sup>  
673 Regimental Combat team, women and gay people in military service, the Navajo  
674 Code Talkers, and the important role played by Filipino soldiers in the war effort.  
675 When possible, this study can include oral or video histories of those who  
676 participated in the conflict. California played a huge role in America’s successful

677 war effort - the number of military bases in the state increased from 16 to 41,  
678 more than those of the next 5 states combined. By the end of the war, California  
679 would be the nation's fastest growing state, and the experience of war would  
680 transform the state demographically, economically, socially, and politically.

681       Although American casualties from the war were small in comparison to what  
682 other nations endured, over 400,000 Americans lost their lives. This question can  
683 frame students' understanding of the two fronts of the war: **How was the war**  
684 **mobilized and fought differently in the Atlantic versus the Pacific?** In the  
685 haze of war, many Americans leaders knew about Hitler's hatred of the Jews, but  
686 they did not prioritize bombing death camps or railroads to them, for example,  
687 because the sentiment was that all efforts should focus on the quickest end to  
688 the war. Students can explore the Holocaust from the American perspective and  
689 consider the response of Franklin D. Roosevelt's administration to Hitler's  
690 atrocities against Jews and other groups.

691       Given the emphasis on the war in Europe in the tenth grade course, teachers  
692 may want to focus their instruction on the war in the Pacific in the eleventh grade  
693 course. Students can analyze the strategies employed by the Japanese military  
694 in their campaign to conquer Asia and the western Pacific and the United States'  
695 response to Japanese aggression, using the question, **How did America win**  
696 **the war in the Pacific?** Students can analyze early American losses, such as  
697 the surrender (and eventual liberation) of the Philippines, to understand and  
698 appreciate the sacrifices of individual soldiers and civilians, the importance of  
699 visionary and courageous leadership, the brutality of the conflict, and the

700 necessity of logistical support. Designated as a commonwealth of the United  
701 States in 1935, the Philippines was attacked by Japanese forces within hours of  
702 Pearl Harbor. After the Japanese air force bombed airfields, bases, harbors, and  
703 shipyards, approximately 56,500 soldiers from the Japanese Army came ashore  
704 at Luzon. American forces and their Filipino allies, who comprised the majority of  
705 troops but were very poorly equipped, led by General Douglas MacArthur, the  
706 supreme commander of Allied forces in the Pacific, were unable to defend the  
707 territory and ultimately retreated to the jungles of the Bataan Peninsula. Although  
708 American and Filipino troops lacked ammunition and food, and thousands were  
709 sick from malaria and dengue fever, they managed to defend Bataan for 99 days.  
710 MacArthur fled to Australia during this period, vowing, “I shall return.” On April 9,  
711 1942 General Ned King, US commander of all ground troops in Bataan,  
712 surrendered his 76,000 sick and starving troops (American and Filipino) to the  
713 Japanese, one of the most grievous defeats in American military history. The  
714 captured soldiers were then forced to march more than 60 miles north in what  
715 became known as the Bataan Death March. Conditions during the march were  
716 brutal. POWs who couldn’t keep up due to exhaustion or a lack of food or water,  
717 they were beaten, bayoneted, shot, or in some cases, beheaded by Japanese  
718 soldiers; approximately 10,000 Filipinos and 750 Americans died along the way.  
719 If the POWs survived the grueling trek, they were packed into pre-war boxcars  
720 for transport to prison camps. Thousands of soldiers died in the journey and in  
721 the camps from sickness and starvation. Over the next three years, the US  
722 employed an island-hopping strategy to push back the Japanese advance. In

723 February 1945 American and Filipino forces finally recaptured the Bataan Peninsula; Manila was liberated the next month. By the end of the war, approximately 1,000,000 civilians had died and Manila became the second most devastated city in the world after Warsaw.

727 Students should also consider the President Harry S. Truman's decision to drop two atomic bombs on Japan in order to end the war. They can analyze the reasons for the dropping of the bombs, considering both his rationale and differing historical judgments. Students can simulate Truman's cabinet in small groups to evaluate the then-available evidence about the condition of Japan and the effects of nuclear weapons, make a reasoned recommendation, and compare each group's decision making.

734 At home, World War II had many long-lasting effects on the nation. Industrial demands fueled by wartime needs contributed to ending the Depression and set a model for an expanded governmental role in regulating the economy after the war. Students can consider this question in order to identify cause and effect changes for ordinary people on the home front: **How did World War II serve to advance movements for equality at home and abroad?** Wartime factory work created new and higher-paying job opportunities for women, African Americans, and other minorities; the opening up of the wage-labor force to women and minorities helped them to raise their expectations for what they should be able to achieve. Unlike World War I, many women remained in the workforce after demobilization. The defense-related industries became especially critical to California's economy, helping drive other sorts of development such as the

746 manufacturing sector and the science-technology establishment. These jobs  
747 drew enormous numbers of migrants from other parts of the country and  
748 eventually spurred the creation of expansive suburbs, highways, and shopping  
749 complexes. Meanwhile, immigration continued, especially to California, which  
750 depended upon agricultural labor provided by immigrants, particularly Mexicans,  
751 who came through the Bracero Program. This 1942 government-sponsored  
752 program, designed primarily to replace native-born agricultural and transportation  
753 industry workers who were mobilizing for war and interned Japanese-American  
754 farmers with imported Mexican laborers, continued until 1964. Instruction on the  
755 Bracero program can include oral or video histories of those who came to the  
756 United States as part of the program. Students can use those resources to  
757 explore the economic and cultural effects of the program during and after World  
758 War II, and the reasons why the Braceros chose to participate.

759 In addition to having economic opportunities advanced by World War II, the  
760 ideology of the war effort, combined with the racial segregation of the armed  
761 forces, sparked multiple efforts at minority equality and for civil rights activism  
762 when the war ended. For example, the head of the largely African-American  
763 Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters Union, A. Philip Randolph, planned a march  
764 on Washington, D.C. in 1941 to focus international attention on the hypocrisy of  
765 undemocratic practices at home while the country was about to become engaged  
766 in fighting for democracy abroad. This march ultimately prompted President  
767 Roosevelt to sign Executive Order 8802 to desegregate military-related  
768 industries. Readings from Gunnar Myrdal's *An American Dilemma* helps students

769 consider the contrast between American principles of freedom and equality and  
770 practices of racial segregation in the context of World War II. Military officials  
771 established an unprecedented effort to screen out and reject homosexuals,  
772 though gay men and lesbians still served in the armed forces in significant  
773 numbers. Some found toleration in the interests of the war effort, but many others  
774 were imprisoned or dishonorably discharged. That persecution set the stage for  
775 increased postwar oppression and organized resistance.

776 But wartime racial discrimination went beyond military segregation. Los  
777 Angeles Mexicans and Mexican Americans found themselves under violent  
778 attack during the 1943 Zoot Suit Riots, when the police allowed white Angelenos  
779 and servicemen to rampage against them. In 1942, President Roosevelt signed  
780 Executive Order 9066, which authorized the relocation and internment of 110,000  
781 Japanese Americans and “resident aliens” living within 60 miles of the west  
782 coast, and stretching inland into Arizona, on grounds of national security. The  
783 order violated their constitutional and human rights, but the Supreme Court, in a  
784 decision heavily criticized today, upheld its implementation in *Korematsu v.*  
785 *United States*, arguing that, “... when under conditions of modern warfare our  
786 shores are threatened by hostile forces, the power to protect must be  
787 commensurate with the threatened danger.” In addition, many persons of Italian  
788 and German origin who were in the United States when World War II began were  
789 classified as “enemy aliens” under the Enemy Alien Control Program and had  
790 their rights restricted, including thousands who were interned. The racial  
791 distinction in the application of these policies is clear in the fact that unlike the

792 Italians and Germans who were interned, over 60 percent of those with Japanese  
793 ancestry were American citizens. Japanese Americans lost personal property,  
794 businesses, farms, and homes as a result of their forced removal. After many  
795 years of campaigning for redress, Congress in 1988 apologized for Japanese  
796 internment and allocated compensation funds for survivors. *Only What We Could  
797 Carry*, edited by Lawson Inada, is a particularly good source for firsthand  
798 accounts of the Japanese American experience during WWII, including oral  
799 histories of servicemen.

800

### 801 **Post-War America**

802 The United States government, especially the presidency, emerged from the  
803 Great Depression and World War II with new powers, which expanded during the  
804 late 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s through the development of a national security  
805 state. The term “liberal consensus” (coined by historian Godfrey Hodgson) is  
806 often used to characterize the post-war years from the 1940s through the 1960s.  
807 In this time of relative political agreement, both political parties agreed upon  
808 these key tenets: a promotion of the welfare state that was started during the  
809 New Deal and expanded in the 1940s and beyond; support for anti-communism  
810 through the development of a national security state; and the necessity of a  
811 strong central government, especially the executive branch to facilitate the  
812 welfare state and anti-communist policy. The years of the liberal consensus were  
813 marked by remarkable prosperity. This prosperity was shared by more  
814 Americans than at any other time in the twentieth century; thus, the liberal

815 consensus allowed for the middle class to grow and for the American dream to  
816 be realized by people that had just survived the traumas of war and depression.  
817 Government spending remained high throughout the postwar era and included  
818 new investments, such as President Eisenhower's interstate highway system at  
819 the federal level, and the California Master Plan for education at the state level.  
820 Spending on defense remained high as well, which led Eisenhower to warn about  
821 the rise of a "military-industrial complex" that would endanger American  
822 democracy. This spending led to the growth of both new and existing industries  
823 that for decades affected the American economy and society, including the rise  
824 of the aerospace and computer industries in California. While this consensus  
825 lasted for more than twenty years, students will learn that as the 1960s  
826 progressed the right moved further to the right and the left moved further to the  
827 left, thus unraveling the consensus.

828

### 829 **Cold War Struggles Abroad**

830 • How did American foreign policy shift after World War II?  
831 • What was Containment? How was it employed?  
832 • How did anti-communism drive foreign policy?  
833 • Why was the period between 1946 and 1990 known as the Cold War?

834 Even before the end of World War II American leaders sensed that Joseph  
835 Stalin, the leader of the Soviet Union, had a plan for the postwar world that did  
836 not align with America's vision of an open-door world. It was soon clear that there  
837 would be an ideological and geopolitical struggle with consequences rippling

838 across the globe between the Soviet Union, a Communist nation with an  
839 authoritarian government that had a very poor record of protecting human rights  
840 (which students should recall from grade 10), and a vision of foreign policy bent  
841 on creating and supporting other Communist Nations, and the United States, a  
842 capitalist-leaning nation with an elected government and a vision of foreign policy  
843 bent on supporting other capitalist-leaning nations. Although the Americans and  
844 Soviets were allies during World War II, the postwar relations of these two super  
845 powers pitted them in opposition to one another. Teachers should be sure to  
846 revisit key tenets of communist economies and capitalist economies in the  
847 postwar eras so that students will understand the ideologies that underpinned  
848 this decades-long struggle. Equipped with a background on the differences  
849 between the US and Soviet Union, students can address this question: **What**  
850 **was Containment? How was it employed?** Containment, the American  
851 strategy for confronting the Soviet vision for the world, and designed by American  
852 Foreign Service Officer George Kennan, asserted that the U.S. employ “adroit  
853 and vigilant application of counter-force at a series of constantly shifting  
854 geographical and political points, corresponding to the shifts and maneuvers of  
855 Soviet policy.” Students can learn about change over time by deconstructing the  
856 intent of Containment; the goal of containing the threat of further Soviet influence  
857 in the world broke from earlier precedents that advocated spreading all over the  
858 world American ideals of open markets and self-determination. As part of their  
859 study of the policy of Containment, students examine the Soviet expansion into  
860 Eastern Europe, the Marshall Plan, the Truman Doctrine, and the creation of the

861 North Atlantic Treaty Organization military alliance, and the competition for allies  
862 within the developing world. In the postwar Cold War context, students study the  
863 creation of the United Nations in 1945 and its role in global politics and  
864 economics, including the role of institutions such as the International Monetary  
865 Fund; the United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization; the  
866 United Nations Human Rights Commission; the World Health Organization; and  
867 the World Bank. They also learn about the Universal Declaration of Human  
868 Rights, adopted by the United Nations in 1948. Students understand the reasons  
869 for the continued U.S. support of the Geneva Conventions and the U.S. role in  
870 the adoption of the Fourth Geneva Convention of 1949. These new worldwide  
871 organizations created in the context of the Cold War can be united for students  
872 by this question: **How did American foreign policy shift after World War II?**

873 The study of American Cold War foreign policy can be extended to an  
874 examination of the major events of the administrations of Harry Truman, Dwight  
875 D. Eisenhower, John F. Kennedy, and Lyndon B. Johnson. This question can  
876 help frame the conflict through the wide lens of several presidential  
877 administrations: **Why was the period between 1946 and 1990 known as the**  
878 **Cold War?** Students examine the nuclear arms race and buildup, Berlin  
879 blockade and airlift, United Nations' intervention in Korea, Eisenhower's  
880 conclusion of the Korean War, and his administration's defense policies based on  
881 nuclear deterrence and the threat of massive retaliation, including the CIA-  
882 assisted coup in Iran as part of early Cold War history. Foreign policy during the  
883 Kennedy and Johnson administrations continued Cold War strategies, in

884 particular the “domino theory” that warned of the danger of communism rapidly  
885 spreading through Southeast Asia. Students study how America became  
886 involved in Southeast Asia, particularly after the French conceded to the  
887 Vietnamese in 1956. While teachers may wish to cover the Vietnam war in this  
888 Cold War foreign policy unit, this Framework suggests returning to the escalation  
889 of the war at the end of the Civil Rights movement (where there is narrative and a  
890 lesson suggestion), as students will have more background for understanding the  
891 domestic side of the war at this point. Nevertheless, the escalation of the  
892 Vietnam War and secret bombings of Laos and Cambodia proved to be the  
893 culmination of Cold War strategies and ultimately caused Americans to question  
894 the underlying assumptions of the Cold War era, and protest against American  
895 policies abroad. Collectively, Linda Granfield’s *I Remember Korea*, Rudy  
896 Tomedi’s *No Bugles, No Drums*, Sucheng Chan’s *Hmong Means Free*, John  
897 Tenhula’s *Voices from Southeast Asia*, *The Vietnam Reader*, edited by Stewart  
898 O’Nan, and Lam Quang Thi’s *The Twenty-Five Year Century* are examples of  
899 oral histories, memoirs, and other primary sources that represent soldiers’ and  
900 refugees’ experiences during the Korean and the Vietnam Wars.

901 Students also learn about how the Cold War was conducted in the Middle  
902 East, Africa, and Latin America by addressing this question: **How did anti-**  
903 **communism drive foreign policy?** In pursuit of supporting anti-communist  
904 governments all over the globe, the American government – and the CIA in  
905 particular – backed a number of authoritarian regimes with poor records of  
906 protecting human rights. These events should be placed within the context of

907 continuing tensions between the Soviet Union and the United States, and thus  
908 often understood as proxy wars for the ongoing geopolitical and ideological  
909 struggle. American foreign policy in the Middle East included CIA involvement in  
910 overthrowing the democratically elected Mossadegh government in Iran, leading  
911 to the 26 year rule of Shah Mohammed Reza Pahlavi, an authoritarian monarch.  
912 Tension in the region would lead (much later) to the Islamic Revolution in Iran,  
913 the rise of Islamism in the Middle East, and a host of post-Cold War conflicts.  
914 American Cold War foreign policy also provided support for Israel and Turkey. In  
915 the Western Hemisphere students examine the events leading to the Cuban  
916 Revolution of 1959; the political purges and the economic and social changes  
917 introduced and enforced by Castro; Soviet influence and military aid in the  
918 Caribbean; American intervention in Guatemala (1954) and Chile (1973); the  
919 1961 Bay of Pigs invasion and the 1962 Missile Crisis; and the 1965 crisis in the  
920 Dominican Republic.

921 The History Blueprint is a free curriculum developed by the California History-  
922 Social Science Project (<http://chssp.ucdavis.edu>), designed to increase student  
923 literacy and understanding of history. Three units are available for free download  
924 from the CHSSP's website, including The Cold War, a comprehensive  
925 Standards-aligned unit for eleventh grade teachers that combines carefully  
926 selected and excerpted primary sources, original content, and substantive  
927 support for student literacy development. For more information or to download  
928 the curriculum, visit: <http://chssp.ucdavis.edu/programs/historyblueprint>.

929

930    **Cold War Struggles at Home**

931       • How was the Cold War fought domestically?

932       • How did the government work to combat the perceived threat of  
933           Communism domestically?

934       • How were American politics shaped by the Cold War?

935       • How did the Cold War affect ordinary Americans?

936       Students learn about the domestic side of the Cold War by considering the

937       question: **How was the Cold War fought domestically?** The domestic political

938       response to the spread of international communism involved government

939       investigations, new laws, trials, and values. Students learn about the

940       investigations of domestic communism at the federal and state levels and about

941       the spy trials of the period. Congress passed the Smith Act (Alien Registration

942       Act) in 1940, which criminalized membership in or advocacy of an organization

943       that supported the overthrow of the government; this meant that any Communist-

944       leaning group violated the Smith Act. This question can frame how students

945       study the government during these years: **How did the government work to**

946       **combat the perceived threat of Communism domestically?** From 1948 to

947       1950, California Congressman Richard Nixon established himself as an anti-

948       communist crusader by prosecuting Alger Hiss, a New Dealer who had worked at

949       the State Department, for his Communist affiliations as a member of a Soviet spy

950       ring, and for espionage conducted for the Soviet Union in the late 1930s. In 1951

951       Julius and Ethel Rosenberg were tried and convicted of espionage for passing

952       nuclear secrets to Soviets; both were executed for their crimes in 1953. Senator

953 Joseph McCarthy heightened Americans' fear of Communists with his dramatic,  
954 public, yet ultimately demagogic allegations of large numbers of Communists  
955 infiltrating the government in the early 1950s. Although his colleagues in the U.S.  
956 Senate censured him, the influence of McCarthy outlasted his actions and  
957 explains why the term "McCarthyism" signifies the entire era of suspicion and  
958 disloyalty. Hysteria over national security extended to homosexuals, considered  
959 vulnerable to black mail and thus likely to reveal national secrets. The public Red  
960 Scare overlapped with a Lavender Scare. Congress held closed-door hearings  
961 on the threat posed by homosexuals in sensitive government positions. A  
962 systematic investigation, interrogation, and firing of thousands of suspected gay  
963 men and lesbians from federal government positions extended into surveillance  
964 and persecution of suspected lesbians and gay men in state and local  
965 government, education, and private industry. Students can debate whether such  
966 actions served national security and public interests and consider how the  
967 Lavender Scare shaped attitudes and policies related to lesbian, gay, bisexual,  
968 and transgender people from the 1950s to the present. Students can synthesize  
969 this breadth of information about the government and Cold War by addressing  
970 this question: **How were American politics shaped by the Cold War?**

971 Outside the federal government, fear of communism also affected people's  
972 daily lives. Students can use this question to connect their studies of daily life  
973 during the Cold War with national and international developments: **How did the**  
974 **Cold War affect ordinary Americans?** Institutions ranging from school districts  
975 and school boards, to the Screen Actors Guild in Hollywood, to civil rights

976 organizations produced blacklists that contained the names of suspected  
977 Communists or Communist sympathizers, which meant that the groups would not  
978 affiliate with those people. Students can study the loyalty oaths (an important  
979 issue at the University of California in the 1950s) and legislative investigations of  
980 people's beliefs as part of this unit. Still, during this era, there were significant  
981 Supreme Court decisions that protected citizens' rights to dissent and freedom of  
982 speech.

983 Another way to address the question **How did the Cold War affect ordinary**  
984 **Americans?** is to have students consider how Cold War spending and ideology  
985 shaped people's daily lives. Fighting the Cold War meant heavy government  
986 investments in the defense and new aero-space industry, which had a significant  
987 impact on California. With a generation of Americans who survived the Great  
988 Depression and fought in World War II, many in this group started to take  
989 advantage of the GI Bill of Rights, which opened college doors to millions of  
990 returning veterans, who contributed to the nation's technological capacity. This  
991 educated group of Americans was able to contribute to the nation's strong  
992 industrial base, and experienced rapid economic growth and a steady increase in  
993 the standard of living. These Americans were also eager to have children, and  
994 thus soon after World War II ended, key demographic changes such as the Baby  
995 Boom, white migration to the newly developing suburbs, migration to the Sun  
996 Belt, and the decline of the family farm transformed where and how Americans  
997 lived. Within these broad demographic shifts televisions, home appliances,  
998 automobiles, the interstate highway system, and shopping malls fostered

999 changes in American families' lifestyles. Thus, many Americans' economic  
1000 livelihoods – especially in California – were premised on Cold War government  
1001 investment and ideological goals. As William Levitt, the builder who perfected  
1002 and duplicated suburban homes and neighborhoods across the country declared,  
1003 "No man who owns his own house and lot can be a Communist." Students  
1004 investigate the ways in which the economic boom and social transformation that  
1005 occurred after WWII, resulted in significant changes to many industries, for  
1006 example large-scale agriculture and energy production. Students learn that  
1007 human industrial activities have influenced the functioning and health of natural  
1008 systems as a result of the extraction, harvesting, manufacturing, transportation,  
1009 and consumption of these goods and services (California Environmental Principle  
1010 II).

1011 While more Americans than ever before enjoyed the comforts of middle-class  
1012 suburban affluence, not all people benefitted from it. Minorities were forbidden  
1013 from owning property in these newly-constructed developments. While the white  
1014 middle class grew in size and power, poverty concentrated among minority  
1015 groups, the elderly, and single-parent families. Betty Friedan also coined the term  
1016 "feminine mystique" to describe the ideology of domesticity and suburbanization,  
1017 which left white middle-class college educated housewives yearning for  
1018 something more than their responsibilities as wives and mothers. Students can  
1019 see the contradiction between the image of domestic contentment and  
1020 challenges to the sex and gender system through the publication of and  
1021 responses to the Kinsey reports on male and female sexuality in 1948 and 1953;

1022 the publicity surrounding Christine Jorgensen, the “ex-G.I.” transformed into a  
1023 “blonde beauty” through sex-reassignment surgery in 1952; the efforts of the  
1024 medical professional to enforce proper marital heterosexuality; and the growth of  
1025 LGBT cultures.

1026 In addition to studying the social order of post-war America, students can  
1027 investigate the ways in which significant changes to many industries, for example  
1028 large-scale agriculture and energy production, altered the environment. Students  
1029 can learn about some of the environmental consequences of the major industries  
1030 that boomed after World War II forming the foundation on which students build  
1031 their understanding that knowledge and perceptions about environmental  
1032 concerns has changed over time, in turn influencing local economies.

<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Grade Eleven Classroom Example: Containing Communism at Home, a Museum Exhibit</b></p>
<p>Ms. Tran’s eleventh grade class is learning about how the Cold War impacted the United States by culling primary sources and creating projects that communicate the topic. On the first day Ms. Tran tells her class, “Working in groups of three or four, your task is to design a museum exhibit that explores domestic containment in an engaging and informative way.” Ms. Tran provides each group with a total of four packets, each detailing a specific component of domestic containment: 1) harnessing atomic energy for security, 2) rooting out communists and subversives in American society, 3) promoting certain notions of sexuality and the American family structure, and 4) containing the race problem.</p>

Each packet includes a short overview, followed by related primary sources. Each group will use these sources to design its own exhibit, which will be shared with the rest of the class. After each group shares their exhibit, all students will be asked to use this information to answer the following question: *How did the US contain communism at home?* After explaining these instructions and having the students read the background material, Ms. Tran directs her students to brainstorm a list of possible questions that could organize their exhibit. She clarifies that questions should not be yes or no, but instead be open ended like “How were women affected by domestic containment efforts?” The groups create two investigation questions on their topic, review them with the teacher, and then begin to prioritize evidence (or displays) for the museum. Ms. Tran’s students select eight to ten pieces of evidence that best tell their story, organize them in a flow chart, and then create the display. Some of Ms. Tran’s students create a virtual museum, using QR codes on their smart phones to view sources; others select multi-media sources; still others create museum boards. Once the exhibit is complete, Ms. Tran’s students create a flier, which contains the investigative question and other designs that will provide potential museum visitors with a flavor of their exhibit. Finally, the museum exhibits are shared and each student completes a survey about the other exhibits to collect and synthesize all of the information.

This example is summarized from a full unit, *The Cold War Containment at*

*Home*, available for free download, developed by the California History–Social Science Project (<http://chssp.ucdavis.edu/programs/historyblueprint>) as part of the History Blueprint initiative. Copyright © 2104, Regents of the University of California, Davis Campus.

**CA HSS Content Standards:** 11.9.3, 11.9.4

**CA HSS Analysis Skills (9–12):** Historical Research, Evidence, and Point of View 4, Interpretation 3

**CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy:** RH.11–12.2, 7, WHST.11–12.6, 7, 8

**CA ELD Standards:** ELD.PI.11–12.1, 2, 4, 6a

1033

1034 **Movements for Equality**

- 1035     • Why was there a civil rights movement?
- 1036     • What were the goals and strategies of the civil rights movement?
- 1037     • Did the civil rights movement succeed?
- 1038     • What does “equal rights” mean?
- 1039     • How did various movements for equality build upon one another?
- 1040     • How was the government connected to the movements for equality?
- 1041     • How was the war in Vietnam similar to and different from other Cold War struggles?
- 1042     • How did the war in Vietnam affect movements for equality?
- 1043     Although the 1950s have been characterized as a decade of relative social calm, the struggles of African Americans, Chicano/as, Native Americans, Asian Americans, as well as women and lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender

1047 people that emerged forcefully in the 1960s, have their roots in this period. In this  
1048 unit students focus on the history of the movements for equality, and on the  
1049 broader social and political transformations that they inspired, beginning with the  
1050 civil rights movement in the south and continuing for the thirty-five year period  
1051 after World War II. The question **Why was there a civil rights movement?** will  
1052 prompt students to identify all of the hurdles minorities faced in the mid-twentieth  
1053 century; however, teachers should encourage students to remember that there  
1054 had been civil rights activism before now, but that this time the movement  
1055 seemed different and that the goal of the class is to explain how and why. A brief  
1056 review of earlier content helps students grasp the enormous barriers African  
1057 Americans had to overcome in their struggle for their rights as citizens: legal  
1058 statutes in place that prevented them from voting and exercising their rights as  
1059 citizens, Jim Crow laws that kept them in a state of economic dependence, a  
1060 system of violence and intimidation that prevented most African Americans from  
1061 attempting to exercise power, and a legal system that was devoted to preserving  
1062 the status quo. Life for African Americans at the century's mid-point was one of  
1063 second-class status.

1064 At the beginning of this unit, teachers may want to have students address this  
1065 question: **What does “equal rights” mean?** To interrogate this issue students  
1066 should be encouraged to consider what “equality of rights” versus “equality of  
1067 opportunity” might entail; this sort of discussion will lead students to employ the  
1068 historical thinking skill of contingency, in other words, to see the civil rights  
1069 movement not as a pre-ordained movement that turned out exactly as intended.

1070 Instead, teachers should encourage the class to develop a working definition of  
1071 equal rights, as it will likely change or be challenged as the class surveys  
1072 different forms of activism. Students should first learn about the rise of the  
1073 African American civil rights movement and the legal battle to abolish  
1074 segregation by considering this question: **What were the goals and strategies**  
1075 **of the civil rights movement?** An important stimulus for this movement was  
1076 World War II, when African Americans worked in both the defense industries at  
1077 home and in military service abroad that were often framed as wars against two  
1078 racist empires. Some of the most successful state and federal court cases  
1079 challenged racial segregation and inequality in education, including cases in  
1080 state and federal district courts, such as *Mendez v. Westminster* (1947), which  
1081 addressed segregation of Mexican and Mexican-American school children and  
1082 involved then-Governor Earl Warren, who would later, as Chief Justice of the  
1083 U.S. Supreme Court, write the *Brown* decision. The NAACP in 1954 achieved a  
1084 momentous victory with the *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka et al.* (1954)  
1085 decision in challenging racial segregation in public education. The NAACP Legal  
1086 Defense Fund, employing Thurgood Marshall as its lead counsel, successfully  
1087 overturned the entire legal basis of “separate but equal.” Exploring why African  
1088 Americans and other minorities demanded equal educational opportunity early on  
1089 in the civil rights movement is important for students to consider and understand.  
1090 The *Brown* decision stimulated a generation of political and social activism led  
1091 by African Americans pursuing their civil rights. Students can continue to address  
1092 the question: **What were the goals and strategies of the civil rights**

1093     **movement?** to unite the many historical actors and moments that define the  
1094     movement. Events in this story illuminate the process of change over time in  
1095     terms of goals and strategies, and they highlight for students the challenges of  
1096     participating in the movement: the Montgomery bus boycott, triggered by the  
1097     arrest of Rosa Parks, led by the young Martin Luther King, Jr., and sustained by  
1098     thousands of African-American women; the clash in Little Rock, Arkansas,  
1099     between federal and state power; the student sit-in demonstrations that began in  
1100     Greensboro, North Carolina; the “freedom rides”; the march on Washington,  
1101     D.C., in 1963; the Mississippi Summer Project of 1964; and the march in Selma,  
1102     Alabama, in 1965; and the Supreme Court’s 1967 *Loving v. Virginia* decision to  
1103     overturn state anti-miscegenation laws. Through focusing on the ongoing effort  
1104     for African Americans to gain equal rights, students can learn about key civil  
1105     rights organizations and put them in a comparative context: King’s Southern  
1106     Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), the Congress on Racial Equality  
1107     (CORE), and the Student Non-Violent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) among  
1108     others. Students recognize how these organizations and events influenced public  
1109     opinion and enlarged the jurisdiction of the federal government. There was also  
1110     considerable violent opposition to the goals and strategies of the movement;  
1111     many white Southerners committed their resources to pushing back against what  
1112     they perceived to be an overly-intrusive federal government regulating race  
1113     relations. Students might read selected excerpts from “The Southern Manifesto  
1114     on Integration,” a 1956 resolution adopted by dozens of senators and  
1115     congressman that opposed the integration of schools and the *Brown* decision,

1116 which declared: “Without regard to the consent of the governed, outside agitators  
1117 are threatening immediate and revolutionary changes in our public school  
1118 systems. If done, this is certain to destroy the system of public education in some  
1119 of the states.” Students will likely need a variety of tools (such as a graphic  
1120 organizer that deconstructs both individual sentences and relevant phrases) to  
1121 both comprehend the text and understand the coded language that fuels the  
1122 argument against integration. Students should also learn about Dr. King’s  
1123 philosophical and religious dedication to nonviolence by reading selected  
1124 excerpts from primary source documents such as “Letter from a Birmingham  
1125 Jail,” his response to a “Call for Unity,” signed by a group of Alabama clergymen.  
1126 They recognize the leadership of the black churches, female leaders such as  
1127 Rosa Parks, Ella Baker, and Fannie Lou Hamer, and gay leaders such as Bayard  
1128 Rustin, all of whom played key roles in shaping the movement. Through the  
1129 careful selection and analysis of the many primary sources available from the  
1130 period, students come to understand both the extraordinary courage of ordinary  
1131 black men, women, and children and the interracial character of the civil rights  
1132 movement. **Missing here is any mention of the extraordinary participation of**  
1133 **American Jews in the Civil Rights Movement.**

1134 One of the hallmark achievements of the civil rights movement in the south  
1135 was convincing the federal government to protect civil and voting rights. The  
1136 question **How was the government involved in the civil rights movement?**  
1137 offers students an opportunity to think about how equality is achieved – through  
1138 grassroots activism and through government action. Students examine the

1139 expansion of the role of the federal government as a guarantor of civil rights,  
1140 especially during the administrations of Presidents Kennedy, Johnson, and  
1141 Nixon. After President Kennedy's assassination, Congress enacted landmark  
1142 federal programs in civil rights, education, and social welfare. The Civil Rights  
1143 Act of 1964, the Voting Rights Act of 1965, and the Elementary and Secondary  
1144 Education Act of 1965 indicated the federal government's commitment to provide  
1145 for the rights of full citizenship to people of all races, ethnicities, religious groups,  
1146 and sexes. President Johnson's Kerner Commission can be analyzed to  
1147 understand the media perspectives on race relations. Students can then read  
1148 excerpts of the text from each federal act to understand what the federal  
1149 government would do and to analyze the new and expanded responsibilities.  
1150 Teachers may wish to place these pieces of federal legislation in the context of  
1151 Great Society programs, which aimed to expand the welfare state and provide a  
1152 broader safety net for vulnerable Americans.

1153 The peak of legislative activity in 1964-65 was accompanied by a shifting  
1154 ideology, geographic orientation, organizational composition, and form of protest  
1155 for the movements for equality. Students can revisit the question **What were the**  
1156 **goals and strategies of the civil rights movement?** to chart change over time  
1157 and cause and effect. One catalyst for changes in the movement was police  
1158 violence against African Americans, which contributed to the Los Angeles Watts  
1159 riot in 1965. Another was the 1965 assassination of Malcom X, an influential  
1160 Black Muslim leader who had criticized the civil rights movement for its  
1161 commitments to nonviolence and integration. In 1966, inspired by Malcolm X, the

1162 Black Power movement emerged. Some Black Power advocates demanded  
1163 change “by any means necessary,” promoted Black Nationalism, and espoused  
1164 plans for racial separatism. While the Black Power movement never received the  
1165 mainstream support that the civil rights movement did, it had enduring social  
1166 influence in its emphasis on racial pride, its celebration of black culture, and its  
1167 powerful criticisms of racism. The assassination of Dr. King in 1968 deprived the  
1168 civil rights movement of its best-known leader, but not its enduring effects on  
1169 American life. In considering issues such as school busing (*Swann v. Board of*  
1170 *Education*, 1971 and *Milliken v. Bradley*, 1974) and affirmative action (*Regents of*  
1171 *the University of California v. Bakke*, 1978), students can discuss the continuing  
1172 controversy between group rights to equality of opportunity as opposed to  
1173 individual rights to equal treatment. More recent Supreme Court decisions that  
1174 address education for undocumented children (*Plyler v. Doe*, 1982), affirmative  
1175 action (*Fisher v. University of Texas*, 2013), and the Voting Rights Act (*Shelby*  
1176 *County v. Holder*, 2013) provide opportunities for students to consider the  
1177 influence of the past on the present. Students should understand the significance  
1178 of President Obama’s election as the first African-American president, and be  
1179 able to place it in the context of the fight, both historical and ongoing, for African-  
1180 American civil rights. Well-chosen readings heighten students’ sensitivity to the  
1181 issues raised in this unit, such as *The Autobiography of Malcolm X*, Lerone  
1182 Bennett’s *Before the Mayflower: A History of Black America*, Anne Moody’s  
1183 *Coming of Age in Mississippi*, Ralph Ellison’s *Invisible Man*, Richard Wright’s  
1184 *Native Son*, and Lorraine Hansberry’s *A Raisin in the Sun*.

1185       The advances of the black civil rights movement encouraged other groups—  
1186       including women, Hispanics and Latinos, American Indians, Asian Americans,  
1187       Pacific Islanders, gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgendered Americans, students,  
1188       and people with disabilities—to mount their own campaigns for legislative and  
1189       judicial recognition of their civil equality. Students can use the question **How did**  
1190       **various movements for equality build upon one another?** to identify  
1191       commonalities in goals, organizational structures, forms of resistance, and  
1192       members. Students can note major events in the development of these  
1193       movements and their consequences. Students may study how Cesar Chavez,  
1194       Dolores Huerta, and the United Farm Workers' movement used nonviolent  
1195       tactics, educated the general public about the working conditions in agriculture,  
1196       and worked to improve the lives of farmworkers. Students should understand the  
1197       central role of immigrants, including Latino Americans and Filipino Americans, in  
1198       the farm labor movement. This context also fueled the brown, red, and yellow  
1199       power movements. The manifestos, declarations, and proclamations of the  
1200       movements challenged the political, economic, and social discriminations faced  
1201       by their groups. They also sought to combat the consequences of their “second-  
1202       class citizenship” by engaging in grassroots mobilization. For example, from  
1203       1969 through 1971 American Indian activists occupied Alcatraz Island; while in  
1204       1972 and 1973, American Indian Movement (AIM) activists took over the Bureau  
1205       of Indian Affairs building in Washington, D.C. and held a stand-off at Wounded  
1206       Knee, South Dakota. Meanwhile, Chicano/a activists staged protests around the  
1207       country, like the famed Chicano Moratorium in Los Angeles in 1970 that

1208 protested the war in Vietnam, and formed a number of organizations to address  
1209 economic and social inequalities as well as police brutality, and energized  
1210 cultural pride. Students should learn about the emergence and trajectory of the  
1211 Chicano civil rights movement by focusing on key groups, events, documents  
1212 such as the 1968 walkout or “blowout” by approximately 15,000 high school  
1213 students in East Los Angeles to advocate for improved educational opportunities  
1214 and protest against racial discrimination, the El Plan de Aztlan, which called for  
1215 the decolonization of the Mexican American people; El Plan de Santa Barbara,  
1216 which called for the establishment of Chicano studies; the formation of the  
1217 Chicano La Raza Unida Party, which sought to challenge mainstream political  
1218 parties, and Rodolfo “Corky” Gonzelez’s “I am Joaquin,” which underscores the  
1219 struggles for economic and social justice. California activists like Harvey Milk and  
1220 Cleve Jones were part of a broader movement that emerged in the aftermath of  
1221 the Stonewall riots, which brought a new attention to the cause of equal rights for  
1222 homosexual Americans. *Asian Americans: The Movement and the Moment*,  
1223 edited by Steve Louie and Glenn Omatsu; *The Latino Reader*, edited by Harold  
1224 Augenbraum and Margarite Olmos; and *Native American Testimony*, edited by  
1225 Peter Nabokov, are a few of the readily available collections of personal histories  
1226 and literature of a period of intense introspection and political activism.  
  
1227 Students also consider the modern women’s movement by continuing to  
1228 address the question: **How did various movements for equality build upon**  
1229 **one another?** Inspired by the civil rights movement, the women’s movement  
1230 grew stronger in the 1960s. Armed with the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Betty

1231 Friedan, author of *The Feminine Mystique*, helped found the National  
1232 Organization for Women (NOW) in 1966, which, similar to the NAACP, pursued  
1233 legal equalities for women in the public sphere. Women's rights activists also  
1234 changed laws, introducing, for example, Title IX of the 1972 Educational  
1235 Amendments, which mandated equal funding for women and men in educational  
1236 institutions. On the social and cultural front, feminists tackled day-to-day sexism  
1237 with the mantra, "The personal is political." Many lesbians active in the feminist  
1238 movement developed lesbian feminism as a political and cultural reaction to the  
1239 limits of the gay movement and mainstream feminism to address their concerns.  
1240 Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, feminists promoted women's health  
1241 collectives, opened shelters for victims of domestic abuse, fought for greater  
1242 economic independence, and worked to participate in sports equally with men.  
1243 Students can consider Supreme Court decisions in the late 1960s and early  
1244 1970s that recognized women's rights to birth control (*Griswold v. Connecticut*,  
1245 1965) and abortion (*Roe v. Wade*, 1973). Students can debate the Equal Rights  
1246 Amendment and discuss why it failed to get ratified. Students can also read and  
1247 discuss selections from the writings of leading feminists and their opponents.  
1248 Over time, students can trace how, by the 1980s and 1990s, women made  
1249 serious gains in their access to education, politics, and the workforce, though  
1250 women continue to not be equally represented at the very highest ranks.  
1251 Students also examine the emergence of a movement for lesbian, gay,  
1252 bisexual, and transgender rights starting in the 1950s with California-based  
1253 groups like the Mattachine Society and the Daughters of Bilitis. Throughout the

1254 1950s and early 1960s, these fairly secretive organizations created support  
1255 networks; secured rights of expression and assembly; and cultivated  
1256 relationships with clergy, doctors, and legislators to challenge teachings and laws  
1257 that condemned homosexuality as sinful, sick, and/or criminal. In the 1960s,  
1258 younger activists, often poorer and sometimes transgender, began to confront  
1259 police when they raided gay bars and cafes in Los Angeles, San Francisco, and  
1260 most famously at the Stonewall Inn in New York City in 1969. Organizations such  
1261 as the Gay Liberation Front and the Gay Activists Alliance called on people in the  
1262 movement to “come out” as a personal and political act. Students can consider  
1263 figures such as Alfred Kinsey, Harry Hay, Jose Sarria, Del Martin and Phyllis  
1264 Lyon, Frank Kameny, Sylvia Rivera, and Harvey Milk. By the mid-1970s, LGBT  
1265 mobilization led to successes: the American Psychiatric Association stopped  
1266 diagnosing homosexuality as a mental illness; 17 states had repealed laws  
1267 criminalizing gay sexual behavior; 36 cities had passed laws banning antigay  
1268 discrimination; and gay-identified neighborhoods had emerged in major cities.  
1269 Students can consider how a 1958 Supreme Court decision that rejected the  
1270 Post Office’s refusal to distribute a gay and lesbian magazine through U.S. mails  
1271 (*One, Inc. v. Olsen*), and a 1967 Supreme Court decision that upheld the  
1272 exclusion and deportation of gay and lesbian immigrants (*Boutilier v. Immigration*  
1273 and *Naturalization Service*) relate to more recent decisions, such as the 1986  
1274 decision that upheld state sodomy laws (*Bowers v. Hardwick*), the 2003 decision  
1275 overturning such laws (*Lawrence v. Texas*), 2013 and 2015 decisions on same-  
1276 sex marriage (*United States. V. Windsor*, *Hollingsworth v. Perry*, and *Obergefell*

1277 *v. Hodges*), and the constitutional guarantee of equal protection under the law for  
1278 transgender individuals, as exemplified through successful claims of employment  
1279 discrimination including *Glenn v. Brumby*, *Schroer v. Billington*, and the Equal  
1280 Employment Opportunity Commission's decision in *Macy v. Holder*.

1281 In addition to the movements for equality that made the 1960s and early  
1282 1970s remarkable for the heightened level of activism, the expansion of the war  
1283 in Vietnam provoked antiwar protests that reflected and contributed to a deep rift  
1284 within American society and culture. Two questions can guide students'  
1285 investigations of the war in Vietnam: **How was the war in Vietnam similar to**  
1286 **and different from other Cold War struggles? How did the war in Vietnam**  
1287 **affect movements for equality at home?** After escalation of the war following  
1288 the Gulf of Tonkin Incident and Resolution along with Johnson's re-election in  
1289 1964, the U.S. military embarked on an air and ground war that aimed to  
1290 eliminate the communist threat from South Vietnam. Hundreds of thousands of  
1291 American service members volunteered for and were drafted to fight in the war,  
1292 which government and military leaders portrayed as an extension of broader  
1293 Cold War struggles. Over the course of the first year of the war American  
1294 casualties started to mount, progress seemed elusive, and the ways of  
1295 calculating success were muddled. Recording in the haze of war, American  
1296 journalists reported on television what urban warfare and guerrilla fighting  
1297 entailed; in this context Americans started to call into question the principles  
1298 upon which the war was being fought. By the time of the Tet Offensive and My  
1299 Lai Massacre in early 1968, American public opinion had turned against the war

1300 effort, and according to Senator William Fulbright's assessment: "We are trying to  
1301 remake Vietnamese society, a task which certainly cannot be accomplished by  
1302 force and which probably cannot be accomplished by any means available to  
1303 outsiders. The objective may be desirable, but it is not feasible..." Moreover,  
1304 when it became clear that American minorities were fighting and dying  
1305 disproportionate to their representation in the country, many radicalized rights  
1306 groups loudly protested the war on the grounds that to them it represented one  
1307 more form of oppression – oppression for minorities at home and abroad.

1308 From within the anti-war and rights protest movements, a "counterculture"  
1309 emerged with its own distinctive style of music, dress, language, and films, which  
1310 went on to influence mainstream social and cultural sensibilities. Those that  
1311 participated in the counterculture believed that true equality could only be  
1312 realized through a revolution of cultural values; thus hippies decided to "check  
1313 out" from mainstream society as a way of rebelling against the mainstream  
1314 middle-class American values and seeking true happiness. Counter-culturalists  
1315 rebelled by calling into question Cold War values and even American principles.

1316 According to Mario Savio, a pioneer of the Free Speech Movement at UC  
1317 Berkeley in 1964: "There's a time when the operation of the machine becomes so  
1318 odious—makes you so sick at heart—that you can't take part. You can't even  
1319 passively take part. And you've got to put your bodies upon the gears and upon  
1320 the wheels, upon the levers, upon all the apparatus, and you've got to make it  
1321 stop. And you've got to indicate to the people who run it, to the people who own it  
1322 that unless you're free, the machine will be prevented from working at all."

### Grade Eleven Classroom Example: The Vietnam War

Mr. McMillan's eleventh grade US History class is nearing the end of their study of the Vietnam War. The students have learned about how and why the United States got involved in the conflict, how the war related to the larger Cold War tensions, and factors that made the war especially challenging for American soldiers. Students have also studied specific events of the war and the effects of the conflict on the American home front, including the draft and the anti-war movement.

To conclude their study of the Vietnam War and to assess his students' understanding of the conflict and its significance, Mr. McMillan asks each student to respond, in writing, to the following question: *What did the United States lose in Vietnam?* To help his students fully consider this question, Mr. McMillan first divides the class into groups. Each group is asked to discuss one of the following questions: A) Why did the US enter the Vietnam War? B) What methods did the military use to fight the communists? C) What sacrifices did American soldiers make during the war? D) What impact did the war abroad have upon events at home? E) How did American participation in the Vietnam War help or hurt our fight against communists in the Cold War? Each group is given the rest of the period to review their notes, their texts, and selected primary sources in order to discuss their perspective. Mr. McMillan circulates during this discussion to make sure that all students are participating and that each group is basing their perspective on relevant evidence. The next day, each group is given five minutes

to discuss their response in front of the rest of the class. When not presenting, students are encouraged to take note of their other classmates' presentations so that they can use that work to develop their own written response to the question, What did the United States lose in Vietnam?

For the next week, Mr. McMillan's class spends time each day refining their argument by reviewing the writing process, seeking out relevant evidence, and corroborating sources. Each day, Mr. McMillan begins the class with an activity to support his students' writing of their essays, followed by small group discussions where students share their research and developing arguments. On the first day, students discuss the selection of evidence, by asking each other to explain how their selected evidence is relevant to their argument and whether they need to include more sources in their research. Day two focuses on refining and revising their thesis statements after reviewing their selected evidence. On day three, Mr. McMillan reviews a step-by-step process students have used to develop their introductory and concluding paragraphs and students share drafts of these paragraphs with each other in order to improve their writing. Day four focuses on the evaluation and analysis of evidence, and on day five, students consider the overall organizational structure of their writing, as well as their use of evidence to support the thesis. Students complete their essays the next week and give brief two minute oral presentations to accompany their written work to their classmates.

This example is summarized from a full unit, The Cold War: Vietnam, available for free download, developed by the California History-Social Science Project (<http://chssp.ucdavis.edu/programs/historyblueprint>) as part of the History Blueprint initiative. Copyright © 2104, Regents of the University of California, Davis Campus.

**CA HSS Content Standards:** 11.8, 11.9.3, 11.9.4

**CA HSS Analysis Skills (9–12):** Historical Research, Evidence, and Point of View 4, Interpretation 1

**CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy:** RH.11–12.1, 2, 6, 8, WHST.11–12.1, 4, 5, 9, 10, SL.11–12.1, 4b

**CA ELD Standards:** ELD.PI.11–12.1, 3, 4, 6a, 9, 10a, 11a; ELD.PII.11–12.1, 2a, 2b

1323

1324        Students can consider the question: **Did the civil rights movement succeed?** Making a class presentation, composing an essay, or creating a project that addresses this question will encourage students to make a claim based on a variety of pieces of evidence they have collected throughout the unit, and analyze historical examples of movements for equality to support their claims.

1330        Finally, students read about the beginning of the modern environmental movement in the 1960s and the environmental protection laws that were passed as a result in the next decade. They can note similarities and differences between environmentalism and other forms of activism of the decade, and they

1334 can also trace effects of the Cold War (especially fears of nuclear proliferation) to  
1335 the priorities of the movement. Examining case studies, such as the controversial  
1336 expansion of Redwood National and State Parks in 1978 and oil drilling in the  
1337 Arctic National Wildlife Refuge, helps students develop skills in analyze complex  
1338 and controversial issues. Students might also link those early achievements with  
1339 a student-led debate over issues such as climate change today and the  
1340 appropriate role of government in dealing with these problems.

1341

1342 **Contemporary American Society**

1343 • How has the role of the federal government (and especially the  
1344 presidency) changed from the 1970s through more recent times?  
1345 • What does globalization mean and how has it affected the United States?  
1346 • How did the Cold War end and what foreign policy developments came  
1347 out of it?  
1348 • Why is the United States more diverse now than it was in the middle of the  
1349 twentieth century?  
1350 • In what ways have issues such as education; civil rights for people of  
1351 color, immigrants, and lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender Americans,  
1352 and disabled Americans; economic policy; the environment; and the status  
1353 of women remained unchanged over time? In what ways have they  
1354 changed?  
1355 In the last decades of the twentieth century and first decades of the twenty-  
1356 first century America's economy, political system, and social structure became

1357 more global and inter-connected. This unit attempts to distill complicated  
1358 changes related to de-industrialization, globalization, changing patterns of  
1359 immigration, political scandals and realignments, and the age of terror into a  
1360 coherent course of study. The following framing questions can help students  
1361 make sense of the recent past: **How has the role of the federal government**  
1362 **(and especially the presidency) changed from the 1970s through recent**  
1363 **times? What does globalization mean and how has it affected the United**  
1364 **States? How did the Cold War end and what foreign policy developments**  
1365 **came out of it? Why is the United States more diverse now than it was in**  
1366 **the middle of the twentieth century? In what ways have issues such as**  
1367 **education; civil rights for people of color, immigrants, and lesbian, gay,**  
1368 **bisexual, and transgender Americans, and disabled Americans; economic**  
1369 **policy; the environment; and the status of women remained unchanged**  
1370 **over time? In what ways have they changed? How did the wealth gap**  
1371 **between top earners and the majority of Americans grow between the**  
1372 **1970s and 2010s?**

1373 Students begin their studies of contemporary America by surveying American  
1374 presidents that served during these decades. Presidents Richard Nixon, Jimmy  
1375 Carter, Ronald Reagan, George H.W. Bush, Bill Clinton, George W. Bush and  
1376 Barack Obama all promised to alter the scope of the government – some to  
1377 contract it and some to extend it. Students might view clips of or read excerpts  
1378 from the notable convention or inaugural addresses of these presidents. They  
1379 can track continuity and change over time in the tone, goals, and problems that

1380 each president identifies in his address. This information will help students  
1381 address the question: **How has the presidency changed and stayed the**  
1382 **same?**

1383 The Nixon administration (1968–1974) established relations with the People's  
1384 Republic of China, opened a period of detente with the Soviet Union, and  
1385 negotiated a withdrawal of American troops from Vietnam. Despite his skill in  
1386 managing foreign affairs, Richard Nixon's administration was marred by the  
1387 Watergate political scandal that led to his resignation in 1974. Students can learn  
1388 about the events that led to President Nixon's resignation and assess the roles of  
1389 the courts, the press, and the Congress. Students can discuss the continuing  
1390 issue of unchecked presidential power. Are the president and his staff above the  
1391 law? Students may see how this issue ties into twenty-first century American  
1392 politics by examining the debates about presidential power and individual  
1393 liberties that followed the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001.

1394 In 1980, Ronald Reagan won the presidency and forged a new Republican  
1395 Party by uniting fiscal and social conservatives with a landslide victory. Reagan  
1396 called for a smaller government by decreasing taxes on businesses and  
1397 deregulating industries. He supported a stronger government that would outlaw  
1398 abortion and he appealed to social conservatives seeking to promote  
1399 heterosexual marriage, to oppose ratification of the Equal Rights Amendment, to  
1400 support faith-based cultural advocacy, to champion individual accomplishment,  
1401 and to oppose many safety-net programs. He also vowed to expand the military  
1402 and the Cold War. These three areas led to the resurgence of the Republican

1403 Party under Reagan as he restructured the scope of the federal government. The  
1404 modern conservative movement that started well before Reagan's election in  
1405 1980 and extended beyond the presidency of George W. Bush in the 2000s  
1406 echoed populist notes from the prior century with its criticism of "establishment  
1407 elites" and support of a smaller government that would advocate for social  
1408 programs that promoted what they termed "traditional family values." This  
1409 movement built a part of its base through evangelical churches, televangelism,  
1410 and other media outlets. Its leaders formed their ideology through organizations  
1411 like the Young Americans for Freedom and went on to found a variety of think  
1412 tanks and lobbying organizations. Students can extend their studies of Reagan  
1413 by exploring political developments of the 1990s and 2000s; they might chart  
1414 how conservative principles from the 1980s influenced the nation around the turn  
1415 of the millennium.

1416 In the 1980s the Cold War thawed and eventually ended. In order for students  
1417 to understand the context and significance of the end of the Cold War, they  
1418 should be reminded of the anti-communist and free market goals that drove  
1419 American foreign policy in the past decades. This question can guide students'  
1420 investigation of these years: **How did the Cold War end and what foreign**  
1421 **policy developments came out of it?** During Reagan's first term in office, Cold  
1422 War policies towards Latin America and the Soviet Union intensified: conflicts in  
1423 Nicaragua, El Salvador, and Panama for example demonstrated Reagan's  
1424 willingness to send American support to anti-communists all over the western  
1425 hemisphere. Likewise, his commitment to Star Wars, or the Strategic Defense

1426 Initiative, resulted in an escalated arms race. An ongoing struggle in Afghanistan  
1427 depleted the Soviets of many of their financial and military resources, and by the  
1428 mid-1980s the Soviet Union adopted policies of *Perestroika* and *Glasnost*, which  
1429 ultimately led to its dissolution.

1430 Students might look at the consequences of the end of the Cold War with a  
1431 thematic, topical, or geographic approach. This question can frame students'  
1432 surveys of the post-Cold War years: **What does globalization mean and how**  
1433 **has it affected the United States?** Geographically, students can focus on  
1434 American post-Cold War relations with Latin America. The strong economic ties  
1435 between the regions deepened throughout the 1980s, 1990s, and 2000s.  
1436 *Maquiladoras*, export processing zones or free enterprise zones, between  
1437 Mexico and the U.S. meant that from the 1980s through the 2000s goods flowed  
1438 between countries at freer and faster rates. Similarly, the North American Free  
1439 Trade Agreement (NAFTA) between Canada, the United States, and Mexico  
1440 played a central role in fostering closer relationships between the three countries,  
1441 but tensions remain on issues related to economic regulation, labor conditions,  
1442 immigration, and damage to the environment. Implementation of NAFTA was and  
1443 continues to be contentious on both sides of the border; for example, the  
1444 Chiapas Rebellion in 1994 was an armed uprising in the southern Mexico state of  
1445 Chiapas involved Indian rebels calling for “a world in which many worlds fit,” not a  
1446 mono-world with no space for them. Another way for students to examine  
1447 globalization is to conduct case studies of borderlands. The borderland between  
1448 the United States and Mexico is a dynamic region in which cultures and political

1449 systems merge and environmental issues cross political boundaries. Students  
1450 can use the Tijuana River as an example of U.S.- Mexican economic, political,  
1451 and environmental issues. Using management of natural resources in the region  
1452 as a context for their studies builds their understanding of the spectrum of  
1453 considerations that are involved with making decisions about resources and  
1454 natural systems, and in this case, how those factors influence international  
1455 decisions (California Environmental Principle V). See EEI Curriculum Unit 11.9.7  
1456 The United States and Mexico – Working Together.

1457 Another key topic that Americans wrestled with in recent decades has been  
1458 immigration. Students can examine census data to identify basic demographic  
1459 changes; how has the composition of the U.S. shifted between 1950 -1980 and  
1460 1980 - today, for example? By exploring quantitative immigration information,  
1461 students notice significant changes in the national origins of immigrants to the  
1462 United States. As with their studies of immigration from the beginning of the  
1463 twentieth century, students can analyze push and pull factors that contributed to  
1464 shifting immigration patterns, but they should also learn about changes in  
1465 immigration policy. Starting with the Immigration Act of 1965, laws have  
1466 liberalized country-of-origin policies, emphasizing family reunification, and  
1467 rejecting same-sex partners of American citizens. Students can explain how  
1468 these policies have affected American society. In California, Propositions 187,  
1469 209, and 227 attacked illegal immigration, affirmative action, and bilingual  
1470 education. While all but one provision of Proposition 187 was blocked by federal  
1471 courts, throughout the 1990s and even more so after the September 11, 2001

1472 terrorist attacks, Congress provided for increased border enforcement. By the  
1473 2000s the status of Mexican-Americans and Mexican immigration became a  
1474 national political discussion. In California Latino/as became the largest ethnic  
1475 group in 2010, and Latino/a children comprised more than 51% of public schools.  
1476 It was within this context that the Latino/a community became increasingly  
1477 politically active. In addition, students analyze the impact and experience of  
1478 refugees who fled Southeast Asia after the Vietnam War or Iranians after the  
1479 Islamic Revolution. To synthesize these developments, students can address the  
1480 question: **Why is the United States more diverse now than it was in the**  
1481 **middle of the twentieth century?** Students can also explore how the immigrant  
1482 experience has changed over time by considering the questions: **How does the**  
1483 **life of a new immigrant to the United States today compare with what it was**  
1484 **in 1900? How do policies from the second half of the twentieth century**  
1485 **compare with those of the early twenty-first century?**

1486 In addition to shifts in foreign policy and immigration affecting America's  
1487 national identity from the 1980s through recent times, the nation's economic  
1488 structure also underwent key changes that affected how many native-born  
1489 middle-class Americans lived. Globalization meant the faster and freer flow of  
1490 people, resources, and ideas across national borders. Goods that were once  
1491 produced in the United States could be produced cheaper first in Mexico, then in  
1492 China, and now in smaller nations like Bangladesh. This resulted in falling prices  
1493 for many goods that Americans consumed, but it also led to job dislocations  
1494 domestically. Students study the roots and consequences of de-industrialization.

1495 They understand that starting in the 1970s and continuing through recent times  
1496 economic production has shifted away from heavy industry and towards the  
1497 service sector, which has altered the daily lives of many working and middle  
1498 class families. This has resulted in the fact that over the past thirty years, wider  
1499 gaps in income between top earners and middle and working class earners have  
1500 become more pronounced. Working class wages have stagnated as higher-  
1501 paying unionized blue collar jobs have been outsourced and replaced with  
1502 minimum-wage paying service sector jobs. The stagnant or decreasing wealth of  
1503 working and middle-class Americans has been compounded by changes in tax  
1504 structures and safety-net programs. It has also been amplified by higher costs  
1505 for education, child care, and housing. In recent years, a growing populist  
1506 movement has sought to bring attention to the income gap and has aimed to  
1507 provide solutions through education or organization to help remedy it. Students  
1508 can also learn about resistance to globalization, both domestically and abroad  
1509 like demonstrations in support of the Zapatistas. To make these broad economic  
1510 developments more concrete, students learn about the changing experiences of  
1511 the middle class and the persistence of poverty.

1512 A continuation of this thematic, topical, and geographic explanation of recent  
1513 history includes technology and terrorism. Students can study how late-twentieth  
1514 century developments such as the Internet, new multi-national corporations,  
1515 broadened environmental impacts, and threats such as extremist terrorist groups  
1516 are made possible because of globalization (see the Appendix for a thorough  
1517 explanation of the consequences of globalization). Students can also learn about

1518 how different groups of Americans have fared in this new globalized world –  
1519 ranging from the development of Silicon Valley to immigrant communities to  
1520 those serving in the military – and what the consequences have been.  
1521 Finally, consideration should be given to the major social and political  
1522 challenges of contemporary America. Issues inherent in contemporary  
1523 challenges can be debated, and experts from the community can be invited as  
1524 speakers. This question can guide students' explorations of these varied topics:  
1525 **In what ways have issues such as education; civil rights for people of**  
1526 **color, immigrants, and lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender Americans,**  
1527 **and disabled Americans; economic policy; the environment; and the status**  
1528 **of women remained unchanged over time? In what ways have they**  
1529 **changed?** The growth of the lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender rights  
1530 movement, for example, led to the pioneering role of gay politicians such as  
1531 Elaine Noble, who was elected to the Massachusetts House of Representatives  
1532 in 1974, and Harvey Milk, elected in 1977 to the San Francisco Board of  
1533 Supervisors. Students can learn about how such activism informed the history of  
1534 the AIDS epidemic in the United States. California students are particularly  
1535 poised to tap local history resources on the epidemic related to a retreat from  
1536 some areas of the civil rights, women's liberation and sexual liberation  
1537 movements. By talking about the nation's AIDS hysteria, educators may be able  
1538 to connect the early response to the epidemic to previous alarmist reactions in  
1539 American history and the activism that confronted them.  
1540 Students recognize that under our democratic political system the United

1541 States has achieved a level of freedom, political stability, and economic  
1542 prosperity that has made it a model for other nations, the leader of the world's  
1543 democratic societies, and a magnet for people all over the world who yearn for a  
1544 life of freedom and opportunity. Students understand that Americans' rights and  
1545 freedoms are the result of a carefully defined set of political principles that are  
1546 embodied in the Constitution. Yet these freedoms are imperfect: for example,  
1547 even though Americans elected the nation's first black president in 2008, poverty,  
1548 incarceration, and lower life-expectancy rates continue to afflict communities of  
1549 color at rates that are far higher than that of white communities. Nevertheless,  
1550 students see that the enduring significance of the United States' lies its free  
1551 political system, its pluralistic nature, and its promise of opportunity. The United  
1552 States has demonstrated the strength and dynamism of a racially, religiously,  
1553 and culturally diverse people. Students recognize that our democratic political  
1554 system depends on them—as educated citizens—to survive and prosper.

1555

1556 **Sidebar: Promoting Civic Engagement**

1557 To promote civic engagement at this grade level, students can participate in  
1558 mock trials that recreate some of the landmark cases of the twentieth century  
1559 detailed in this chapter. They can participate in debates for and against  
1560 significant governmental policy decisions, such as Prohibition, the creation of the  
1561 New Deal, efforts to integrate the schools through busing, considerations of racial  
1562 or gender restrictions on the right to marry, or the question of women, people of  
1563 color, and lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender people serving in the military.

1564 They can also conduct oral histories with their family or community members in  
1565 order to deepen their understanding of national historical trends through the lens  
1566 of local participation. Students can interview people who served in the military,  
1567 who participated in the struggle for civil rights, worked in industries transformed  
1568 by rapid economic or technological change, or simply lived ordinary lives and  
1569 came of age at different historical moments to learn about how communities  
1570 change and stay the same.

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